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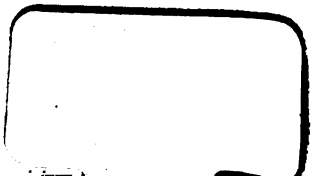
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ENGLISH INTERIOR OF THE ELIZABETHAN AGE

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A RECORD OF THE HUMAN RACE FROM THE EARLIEST HISTORICAL PERIOD TO THE PRESENT TIME; EMBRACING A GENERAL SURVEY OF THE PROGRESS OF MANKIND IN NATIONAL AND SOCIAL LIFE, CIVIL GOVERNMENT, RELIGION, LITERATURE, SCIENCE AND ART

Complete in Fifteen Volumes

BY

ISRAEL SMITH CLARE

Author of "Illustrated Universal History," "Comparative Chronology," "Lives of the Presidents of the United States," "History of the Civil War," and other works, and Editor of a Series of Forty Historical Maps. Member of the American Historical Association

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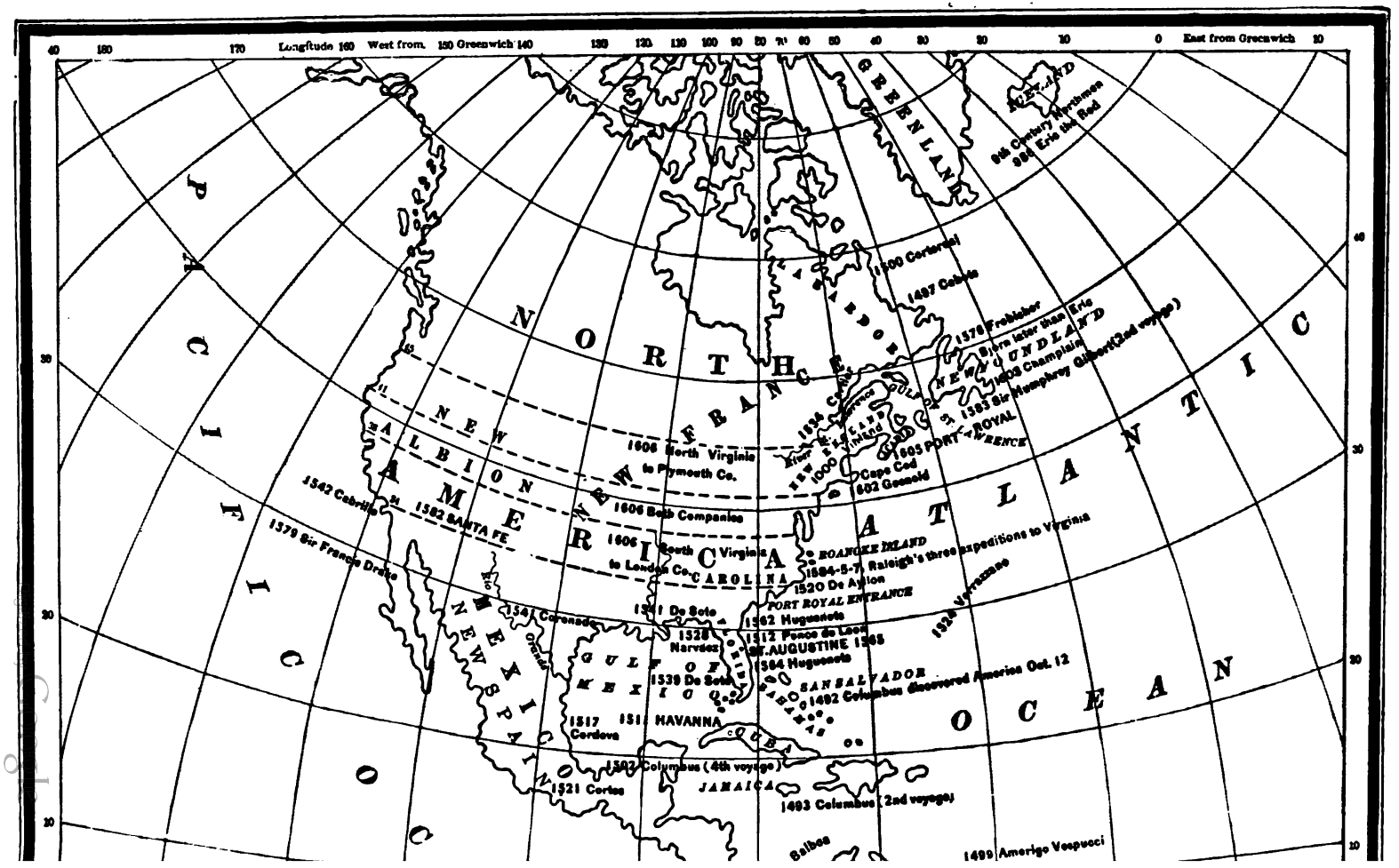
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Longitude 180 West from 170 160 150 Greenwich 140 130 120 110 100 90 80 70 60 50 40 30 20 10 0 East from Greenwich 10
PACIFIC OCEAN
NORTH AMERICA
ATLANTIC OCEAN
GREENLAND
ICELAND
NEW ALBION
NEW FRANCE
NEW ENGLAND
NEW NETHERLAND
NEW SPAIN
GULF OF MEXICO
CAROLINA
FLORIDA
JAMAICA
HAVANNA
SAN SALVADOR
ROANOKE ISLAND
PORT ROYAL ENTRANCE
ST. AUGUSTINE
1000 Cortereal
1497 Cabots
1576 Frobisher
1583 Sir Humphrey Gilbert(2nd voyage)
1603 Champlain
1605 PORT ROYAL
1602 Gosnold
1606 North Virginia to Plymouth Co.
1606 South Virginia to London Co.
1606 Both Companies
1584-5-7 Raleigh's three expeditions to Virginia
1520 De Ayllon
1541 De Soto
1562 Huguenots
1512 Ponce de Leon
1564 Huguenots
1539 De Soto
1517 Cordova
1521 Cortes
1502 Columbus (4th voyage)
1492 Columbus discovered America Oct. 12
1493 Columbus (2nd voyage)
1499 Amerigo Vespucci
1542 Cabrillo
1582 SANTA FE
1579 Sir Francis Drake
1540 Coronado
1524 Verrazano
Balboa

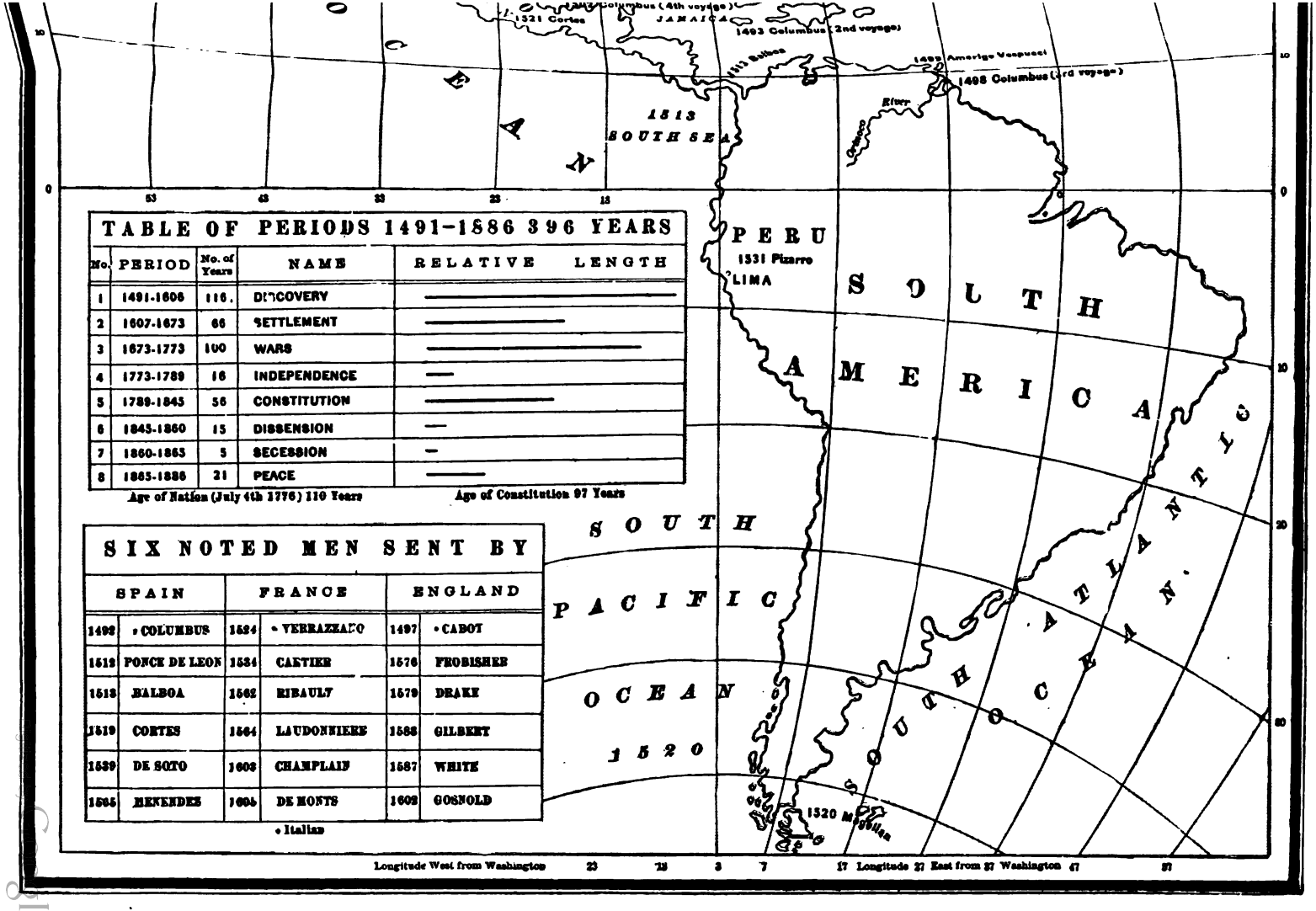


TABLE OF PERIODS 1491–1886 396 YEARS

No.	PERIOD	No. of Years	NAME	RELATIVE LENGTH
1	1491-1606	116	DISCOVERY	
2	1607-1673	66	SETTLEMENT	
3	1673-1773	100	WARS	
4	1773-1789	16	INDEPENDENCE	
5	1789-1845	56	CONSTITUTION	
6	1845-1860	15	DISSENSION	
7	1860-1865	5	SECESSION	
8	1865-1886	21	PEACE	

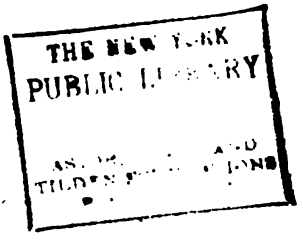
Age of Nation (July 4th 1776) 110 Years

Age of Constitution 97 Years

SIX NOTED MEN SENT BY

SPAIN		FRANCE		ENGLAND	
1492	*COLUMBUS	1524	*VERRAZZANO	1497	*CABOT
1513	PONCE DE LEON	1534	CARTIER	1576	FROBISHER
1513	BALBOA	1562	RIBAULT	1579	DRAKE
1519	CORTES	1564	LAUDONNIERE	1588	GILBERT
1539	DE SOTO	1603	CHAMPLAIN	1587	WHITE
1565	MENENDEZ	1605	DE MONTS	1602	GOSNOLD

*Italian



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CHAPTER XXXII.

DAWN OF THE MODERN ERA.

SECTION I.—PROGRESS OF CIVILIZATION AND INVENTION.

Invention of the Art of Printing.

MANY useful inventions during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries aided vastly in the return of European civilization at the close of the fifteenth century. The most important of these inventions was that of the art of printing, about the year 1440 A. D., by Laurence Koster, of Haarlem, in Holland, and John Gutenberg, of Mayence, in Germany, and Gutenberg's assistants, Faust and Schoeffer. The result of this useful invention was a great increase in the number of books, which now, for the first time, were attainable by all classes. Printing was introduced into England by William Caxton, in 1476, as we have already remarked.

Invention of Gunpowder and the Mariner's Compass.

The invention of gunpowder by the German monk, Berthold Schwarz, prepared the way for the downfall of Chivalry, by the substitution of firearms for the old weapons of warfare. The invention of the *mariner's compass* by the Italian, Flavio Gioja, gave a fresh impulse to navigation; and very soon the gallant Portuguese navigators ventured out farther and farther from the coast than had been hitherto attempted by any mariner, and made important discoveries of islands in the Atlantic and of lands on the coasts of Africa and Asia.

The Renaissance.

In the fifteenth century the long night of barbarism which had hung over Europe since the fall of the Western Roman Empire was rapidly passing away. The invention of the art of printing, and the flight of learned Greeks, with their valuable manuscripts, to Western Europe, upon the capture of Constantinople by the Turks, led to a revival of learning and the arts and sciences during the latter part of the fifteenth century; and the Greek and Hebrew languages now began to be studied in the great universities of Europe. Among those most instrumental in introducing the study of Greek were the two great scholars, John Reuchlin, of Pforzheim, in Germany, and Desiderius Erasmus, of Rotterdam, in Holland—both of whom flourished early in the sixteenth

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century. This revival of art, science and literature is known as the Renaissance.

Decay of Feudalism and Chivalry.

The decay of the Feudal System about the close of the fifteenth century was followed by a change in the condition of the European states. During the Middle Ages, the great barons, or nobles, in every country of Europe, possessed the chief power; but about the close of the mediæval period the royal power became supreme in all the countries of Europe, and much of the freedom which the cities and towns in Spain, Italy, France, Germany and England had enjoyed was taken from them. Absolute monarchy was established in England by Henry VII., the first of the Tudor kings; in France by the crafty and cruel Louis XI.; in Austria by Maximilian I.; and in Spain by Ferdinand and Isabella. Chivalry had also decayed; and the knights, who at first had defended the weak and the oppressed, became highway robbers, especially in Germany, where they plundered and waylaid inoffensive peasants and merchants.

SECTION II.—SEA-PASSAGE TO INDIA AND PORTUGUESE COLONIZATION (A. D. 1497–1622).

Prince Henry and the Portuguese Maritime Discoveries.

The Portuguese under Prince Henry—son of King John the Bastard (1385–1433)—took the lead in maritime discovery. This enlightened prince established an observatory near Cape St. Vincent, and gathered around him eminent astronomers and navigators from all quarters, and discussed with them his favorite project of finding a sea-passage to India by sailing around Africa. Under Prince Henry's patronage, the bold Portuguese navigators discovered and explored the western coast of Africa as far south as Cape de Verde; while the Madeira, the Azores and the Cape de Verde Islands were discovered and taken possession of by the Portuguese.

Bartholomew Diaz and the Cape of Good Hope.

Under the patronage of King John the Perfect (1481–1495), the Portuguese crossed the equator for the first time, and the coast of Guinea was discovered and settled by the enterprising Portuguese. In 1486 Bartholomew Diaz, a daring Portuguese navigator, discovered the southern point of Africa, which was named the *Cape of Good Hope*, because there was now good hope of finding a sea-passage to India.

Vasco da Gama's Voyage to India and Founding of Calicut.

In 1497—during the reign of King Manuel the Great (1495–1521)—Vasco da Gama, another bold Portuguese navigator, sailed round the Cape of Good Hope to India; thus discovering the sea-passage to the East Indies—a discovery which revolutionized the world's commerce, by diverting the trade of the East from the Venetians to the Portuguese. Vasco da Gama landed at Calicut, where was planted a Portu-

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guese colony—the first European settlement in the East Indies. In 1500 Cabral, another Portuguese navigator, discovered Brazil, which was occupied and settled by the Portuguese.

Portuguese Colonial Empire.

The great voyages of Bartholomew Diaz and Vasco da Gama, which, at the close of the fifteenth century, made known to Europe the existence of a sea-passage to India by way of the Cape of Good Hope, led to the founding of a great Portuguese colonial empire in Southern and Eastern Asia. The founding of Calicut, on the Malabar coast of India, in 1498, was the first step in the establishment of such a dominion.

Cabral and Almeida.

Vasco da Gama's successor was Cabral, who discovered Brazil in 1500, during his voyage to India. The Portuguese power in India was extended by the gallant Almeida, Cabral's successor, who reduced many of the native princes of Hindoostan to tribute and forced them to consent to the establishment of Portuguese factories in their principal cities, and who was killed by the savage Hottentots of Southern Africa while on his return to Portugal.

Founding of the Portuguese Empire in India by Albuquerque.

The illustrious Dom Alfonso Albuquerque, the next Portuguese viceroy in the East, notwithstanding the hostility of the Mohammedan rulers of India, obtained a grant of ground from one of the Hindoo princes, and founded a strong fort at Cochin in 1503, where the Portuguese had established factories; and this stronghold became the cradle of the great commercial empire of the Portuguese, whose power was felt from China to the Red Sea. The Mohammedans, who had hitherto engrossed the entire commerce of India, formed a league to expel the Portuguese, and were encouraged therein by the Venetians, who purchased Indian spices and other goods from the Arabs, with which they supplied the principal markets of Europe; but this enterprise was defeated.

His Conquest of Goa.

In 1510 Albuquerque conquered the city of Goa, on the western coast of India, which afterwards became the capital of the Portuguese empire in the East, and was erected into an archbishopric by the Pope. Goa, which still belongs to the Portuguese, displays in its stately churches, warehouses and deserted dwellings a vestige of that magnificence which acquired for it the title of "Goa the Golden." The reduction of Goa was the first instance of territorial acquisition in India by European powers—a system strongly deprecated by Vasco da Gama, and which cannot be defended on any principles of national justice, but which Albuquerque declared absolutely necessary for Portugal to command the trade of the East.

His Conquest of Malacca and Ormuz.

Albuquerque also subdued the city of Malacca, the emporium of the trade of Farther India. He also reduced the isle of Ormuz, in the Persian Gulf, to subjection; and when the King of Persia, to whom the isle belonged, demanded tribute from the Portuguese viceroy, Albuquerque

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pointing to his cannon and balls, replied: "There is the coin with which the King of Portugal pays tribute." Albuquerque caused the name of King Manuel the Great to be feared and respected throughout the East; but the illustrious viceroy was rewarded only with his sovereign's ingratitude, and died of grief because of this treatment.

Portuguese Colonies in the East Indies.

During the next ten years the Portuguese established colonies and factories on the island of Ceylon and on the Coromandel coast of Hindoostan, and subjected the spice-bearing Molucca and Sunda Islands to tribute. In 1517 the Portuguese were granted a trading-station at Macao, in China, which remained in their possession until 1846, when it was opened to all nations. They also obtained a free trade with the Empire of Japan.

Macao.

Portuguese Dominion in Southern Asia and Eastern Africa.

All the islands in the Persian Gulf acknowledged the dominion of the Portuguese. Some of the Arabian princes became their tributaries, while others became their allies; and throughout the entire Arabian peninsula none dared to show them any hostility. In the Red Sea they were the only power that commanded any respect, and they also had considerable influence over the Negus of Abyssinia and the other sovereigns of Eastern Africa.

Isle of Ormuz.

The most remarkable of the Portuguese settlements was the isle of Ormuz, which, although a salt and barren rock in the Persian Gulf, was rendered the most flourishing commercial mart in the East, on account of its commodious situation. Its roadsteads were frequented by shipping from all parts of the East Indies, from the coasts of Africa, Egypt and Arabia; and it possessed an extensive caravan trade with Central Asia through the opposite ports of Persia. The semi-annual fairs held at Ormuz transformed this salt and barren rock into almost the fabled splendor and luxury of an Oriental palace. The wealth, the splendor, and the concourse of traders at Ormuz during its flourishing condition furnished a striking example of the almost omnipotent power of commerce.

Fairs at Ormuz.

During the semi-annual fairs, which lasted from January to March, and from the end of August to the beginning of November, there was, besides the display of luxury and magnificence, an almost unparalleled activity. The salt dust of the streets was concealed and kept down by neat mats and rich carpets. Canvas-awnings were extended from the roofs of the houses to exclude the scorching rays of the sun. The rooms next to the street were opened like shops, adorned with Indian cabinets and piles of porcelain, intermixed with odoriferous dwarf trees and shrubs, set in gilded vases, elegantly adorned with figures. At the corners of all the streets stood camels laden with water-skins; while the richest wines of Persia, the most costly perfumes and the choicest delicacies of Asia, were poured forth in lavish profusion.

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Albuquerque's Aquisitions and the Turks.

The efforts of Albuquerque's successors were directed chiefly to the maintenance of his acquisitions and to checking the power of the Turks, who, after conquering Egypt and Syria in 1517, made strenuous efforts to establish themselves on the Malabar coast of India.

Great Extent of the Portuguese Colonial Empire.

Thus, early in the sixteenth century, the Portuguese had established a colonial and commercial empire which embraced the western, southern and eastern coasts of Africa, from Guinea to the Red Sea, and which extended along the shores of Southern and Eastern Asia from the Red Sea to China; although throughout this vast extent of territory they had little more than a chain of factories and forts. Lisbon, the capital of Portugal, became the seat of the world's commerce; but the nobler emotions in the hearts of the Portuguese were stifled by avarice and selfishness.

Loss of Portugal's East India Possessions.

On the union of Portugal with Spain in 1580 the Portuguese East India possessions also came into the possession of the Spaniards; but when Spanish tyranny and cruelty caused the Dutch to revolt, the Dutch extended their commerce to the East Indies, and at the close of the sixteenth century they had possession of the once-flourishing Portuguese colonial empire. In 1622 Ormuz was wrested from the Portuguese by the English and the Persians. The glory and splendor of that famous emporium soon departed, and it relapsed into its original condition of a barren and desolate rock, so that not a vestige of its former grandeur remains.

Ruin of Ormuz.

Cabral's Discovery of Brazil.

After Pedro Alvarez Cabral, while on his voyage to India to continue the discoveries of Vasco da Gama, had accidentally discovered the coast of Brazil by being driven westward by adverse winds, April 22, 1500, he anchored in the large and excellent harbor of Porto Seguro, April 25, 1500, and took possession of the country in the name of his sovereign, King Manuel the Great of Portugal; after which he resumed his voyage to the East Indies, having sent a vessel back to Portugal with the news of his discovery.

Amerigo Vespucci's Exploration of Brazil.

Upon receiving intelligence of Cabral's discovery, the King of Portugal sent an expedition under Amerigo Vespucci to visit and explore the new country. Upon his return to Europe, Amerigo Vespucci published an account of the country, together with a map. He brought back a cargo of dyewoods, of which he said that whole forests were to be found in Brazil; and an active and profitable trade in these woods at once sprang up. Other nations commenced to take part in this traffic, and the King of Portugal determined to put a stop to this intrusion.

Portuguese Colonization of Brazil.

Accordingly, in 1531, King John III. caused a number of Portuguese colonies to be planted on the coast of Brazil. These settlements were called *Capitanias*, and were founded by Portuguese nobles, to

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whom the King of Portugal granted absolute powers over their settlements on the sole condition that they should bear the expense of colonization. This system worked admirably for several years, but at length it caused so much trouble that the Portuguese government determined to establish a permanent colonial system directly dependent on the Portuguese crown.

First Portuguese Governor-General of Brazil.

In 1549 a Governor-General was appointed for Brazil, and was made the direct representative of the King of Portugal, being vested with absolute jurisdiction in civil and criminal matters. The first Governor-General of Brazil was Thomé de Souza, and the success of the new system was due to his wisdom and good government. He founded the town of Sao Salvador da Bahia, and made it the capital of Brazil. A colony of French Protestants settled on an island in the bay of Rio de Janeiro in 1555, but were expelled ten years later. The Portuguese founded Rio de Janeiro in 1567.

Founding of Bahia and Rio de Janeiro.

Portugal's Loss and Recovery of Brazil.

The forcible annexation of Portugal to Spain in 1580 made Brazil a Spanish dependency for the time, and Brazil suffered much from the attacks of Dutch, French and English fleets; but after Portugal had regained her independence in 1640 she recovered Brazil from the Dutch, who had in the meantime occupied the country, and Brazil was made a principality for the heir-apparent of the Portuguese crown.

SECTION III.—DISCOVERY OF AMERICA (A. D. 1492–1542).

Discoveries by the Northmen

THE Northmen discovered Iceland in 862 and Greenland in 1002; and it is believed that they discovered the North American continent and explored the coasts of Labrador, Newfoundland and New England before the year A. D. 1000, the most noted of their navigators being Lief Eriksson. It is believed that these Northmen built the mysterious old tower at Newport, Rhode Island.

Christopher Columbus.

Among others who were attracted to Lisbon was Christopher Columbus, a Genoese sailor. Columbus believed the earth to be round, and that India could be reached sooner by sailing westward than by making the long voyage around Africa. He vainly endeavored to procure aid, first from his native city, Genoa, and afterward from the Kings of Portugal and England; but he finally obtained assistance from the noble-hearted queen, Isabella of Castile, who fitted out several vessels for him, and appointed him admiral and viceroy of all the lands he might discover.

His Great Discovery.

On August 3, 1492, Christopher Columbus, with three Spanish vessels, left the harbor of Palos, in South-western Spain; and after a voyage of seventy days, he discovered, October 12, 1492, Guanahani, or

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COLUMBUS

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Cat Island, which he named *San Salvador* (Holy Saviour), and of which he took possession in the name of Ferdinand and Isabella—the joint sovereigns of Spain. Columbus found the inhabitants of a copper color and of savage manners; and, supposing he had only discovered the coast of India, he called the people *Indians*—a name ever since very inappropriately applied to the aborigines of the Western Continent. In 1493 he discovered the large and important islands of Cuba and Hayti, and founded the town of San Domingo—the first European settlement in the New World. Several other large islands were discovered, and Columbus named the whole group the *West Indies*. When Columbus returned to Spain he was treated with great honors by the ruling sovereigns, and his progress from Palos to Barcelona was a triumphal procession.

Spain's Claim to the New World.

After the great discovery by Columbus an India-house was established at Seville and a custom-house at Cadiz, under the direction of a new board of trade. Pope Alexander VI. conferred upon the King and Queen of Spain all the lands then or thereafter to be discovered in the New World, and these territories were to be divided from those of Portugal by an imaginary line passing due north and south, a hundred leagues west of the Azores.

Further Discoveries by Columbus.

Columbus made three other voyages across the stormy Atlantic. On his second voyage, in 1493, he discovered Jamaica and the Caribbee Islands. On his third voyage, in 1498, Columbus discovered the great continent of South America, at the mouth of the great river Orinoco. On his fourth and last voyage—during which he discovered Central America (A. D. 1501)—his enemies caused him to be sent back to Spain in irons. He died at Valladolid, in Spain, in 1506. Ferdinand ordered the following inscription to be put upon his tomb at Seville: "To Castile and Leon, Columbus gave a New World." His remains were afterwards conveyed to Havana, in Cuba, and in 1898 were returned to Spain.

His Death.

His Remains.

Amerigo Vespucci.

Columbus did not know that he had discovered a new continent, but thought that he had only reached the eastern shores of Asia. This secret was revealed to Amerigo Vespucci, a Florentine navigator, who explored the eastern coast of South America in 1498, and published a glowing description of that vast continent. In his honor, the new world was named *America*.

Sebastian Cabot's Discoveries and Explorations.

In 1496 John Cabot—a native of Venice, but at that time a merchant of Bristol, in England—obtained the aid of King Henry VII. of England in fitting out an expedition for the discovery of a North-west passage to India. The next year (1497), the expedition—commanded by John Cabot's son, Sebastian—sailed westward and discovered the coasts of Labrador and Newfoundland, the latter being so called because it

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was then known as a new found land, and it became later England's oldest colony. Thus Sebastian Cabot was the first discoverer of the continent of North America. In 1498 Sebastian Cabot again sailed westward and explored the greater part of the Atlantic coast of the present United States. In 1517 he made a third voyage to the polar seas; and in 1526—while in the service of Spain—he discovered the great river Rio de la Plata, in South America.

Maritime Enterprise.

The great discoveries of Columbus and the Cabots having revealed to Europeans the existence of a new continent, a spirit of maritime enterprise was excited, which led other navigators to make voyages to the New World for purposes of discovery and exploration. We will now briefly allude to these.

Gaspar Cortereal's Voyages.

We have already alluded to the discovery of Brazil by the Portuguese navigator Cabral in 1500. In 1501 Gaspar Cortereal, another Portuguese navigator, who had been commissioned by his king to make discoveries in the New World, touched at several points on the Atlantic coast of North America between Labrador and the present New Jersey, and kidnapped fifty natives for slaves. He made a second voyage, from which he never returned. As successful adventures in Africa and Asia engaged the entire attention of the Portuguese they attempted no further discoveries in America.

Diego Columbus.

In 1509 Diego Columbus, the son of the great discoverer, having become hereditary viceroy of Spain in the New World, undertook the conquest and colonization of Cuba, which were accomplished in 1511.

Discovery of Florida by Juan Ponce de Leon.

In the year A. D. 1512 Juan Ponce de Leon, a Spaniard, sailed from Porto Rico, in search of a "fountain of youth," which was said to exist on the neighboring continent. This fountain was said to restore youth and to perpetuate it. On the 27th of March (1512), Ponce de Leon reached the North American continent at the great peninsula between the Atlantic Ocean and the Gulf of Mexico, and named the domain *Florida*, because its banks were laden with flowers, and because the discovery was made on Pasquas de Flores, or Easter Sunday, when the Spanish churches were decorated with flowers. Ponce de Leon was afterward killed in a contest with the natives of Florida.

Balboa's Discovery of the Pacific Ocean.

In 1513 the Spaniard Vasco Nuñez de Balboa crossed the Isthmus of Darien, or Panama, and discovered the Pacific Ocean, which he called *South Sea*. He waded into its waters in full costume, and took possession of sea and land in the name of his sovereign, the King of Spain. Balboa was put to death by order of the Spanish governor of Darien.

Cordova's Discovery of Mexico.

In 1517 Cordova, also a Spanish adventurer, discovered Mexico, the seat of the flourishing empire of the Aztecs, a highly civilized American Indian race, who had populous cities and towns, a regular government, and the various arts and customs of civilized life. In 1521 this empire

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"SANTA MARIA," THE FLAGSHIP OF COLUMBUS

From the Model in the naval parade at New York, 1893

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was conquered by the Spaniards under Fernando Cortez, of which we shall give a fuller account in another section.

Magellan's Great Voyage.

The name *Pacific Ocean* was given to the South Sea by Ferdinand Magellan, a Portuguese navigator, who, in the service of the King of Spain, sailed through the straits, in the southern part of South America, which bear his name, in 1520, and who, several years afterward, was killed on the Philippine Islands by the natives, and whose followers returned to Spain by way of the Indian and Atlantic Oceans, thus completing the first circumnavigation of the globe.

Vasquez de Ayllon.

In 1520 Vasquez de Ayllon, a Spanish adventurer, visited the coast of the present South Carolina, then called *Chicora*, and enticed a number of unsuspecting natives on board his two vessels and sailed with them for Hayti, but one of his vessels foundered and all on board perished, while many on board the other ship absolutely refused food and died of starvation.

Stephen Gomez.

Stephen Gomez, a Spaniard, who had accompanied Magellan on his search for a North-west passage to India, sailed on a voyage in 1525 for the purpose of discovering such a passage, and touched at various points on the Atlantic coast of the present United States from Delaware to New England. As he failed in the great object of his expedition, he kidnapped many Indians on board his vessels for the purpose of selling them into slavery.

Pamphilo de Narvaez.

In 1528 Pamphilo de Narvaez, a Spanish adventurer, attempted the conquest of Florida, but failed, and lost his life in a conflict with the natives.

Verrazani's and Cartier's Explorations and Discoveries.

In 1524 Francis I., King of France, employed John Verrazzani, a Florentine, to make discoveries in the New World. Verrazzani explored the Atlantic coast of North America, from the mouth of the Cape Fear River to the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and named the region *New France*. In 1534 the French king sent Jacques Cartier, a Frenchman, on an expedition to New France. Cartier discovered the mouth of the great river which he named St. Lawrence. In 1535 Cartier sailed up the St. Lawrence, exploring the country to Montreal.

De Soto's Discovery of the Mississippi.

In 1539 Ferdinand De Soto, then the Spanish governor of Cuba, landed in Florida, and, proceeding westward, discovered the great river Mississippi, and explored the continent as far west as the Rocky Mountains. De Soto died on the banks of the Mississippi river in 1541; and the remnant of his followers, having suffered terribly, found their way to a Spanish settlement in Mexico. In 1539 the great Amazon river, in South America, was first explored by Orellana, a Spaniard.

Spanish Explorations of the Pacific Shores.

The Spaniards were the first to make discoveries on the Pacific shores and in the interior of North America. In 1541 Alarçon sailed north along the Pacific coast almost to the site of San Francisco. In 1542

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De Cabrillo explored the same coast almost to the mouth of the Columbia river. The same year Coronado sailed up the Gulf of California and discovered the Gila river.

SECTION IV.—THE ABORIGINES OF AMERICA.

The Aborigines of America.

THE aborigines, or inhabitants of the American continent when discovered and settled by Europeans, were a race of copper-colored savages whom Columbus named *Indians*, because he did not know that he had discovered a new continent, but thought that he had only found the eastern coast of India. The Indian is often spoken of as the *Red Man*, in contradistinction from the European, or White Man.

Their Characteristics.

These people were divided into many nations or tribes, and spoke different languages and dialects. But they were very much alike in color, size, general physical appearance, moral character, religion and government. They were tall, straight and well formed. They had black eyes, and long, coarse and straight hair. There was very little sickness among them.

Huts, Dress, Foods, Tools, Etc.

These people lived in huts made of poles, covered with mats, skins of beasts or bark of trees. These rude huts were called *wigwams*. In summer these savages were almost naked. In winter they were dressed in the skins of beasts. Their food was the flesh of wild animals which they found in the woods, with fish and a few vegetables. They were very fond of *venison*, or flesh of the deer. They also raised *maize*, or Indian corn, for their food. They had very few tools, or implements, and these were made of stones, bones and shells.

Their Warfare.

The men were engaged in war, hunting and fishing. War was their principal occupation. Before going on the war-path they would indulge in the *war-dance*. About forty of them would generally go out as a war party. Sometimes only half-a-dozen went out on the war-path to gain glory. When they went on these warlike expeditions their faces were colored with red *war-paint*, and their heads were decked with feathers. Their yell at such times was called their *war-whoop*. In war they used bows and arrows, tomahawks (or hatchets) of iron or stone and scalping-knives of bone. They tortured their prisoners or murdered them. The scalps of their enemies were their trophies of war. They would scalp an enemy by seizing him by the hair and cutting or tearing a large part of the skin from the top of the head by use of the scalping-knife. Peace was made by the *sachems*, or rulers of the tribes, in council. Each of these sachems would smoke the same *calumet*, or pipe of peace, to show that they meant to keep their word. The calumet was made of pipe-clay, and was often adorned with feathers. The Indians used tobacco in smoking.

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EXPLORERS AND DISCOVERERS

2. Magellan
3. Vasco da Gama
1. Columbus
4. Albuquerque
5. De Soto
6. Sebastian Cabot
7. De Balboa
8. Prince Henry

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Women and Children.

The Indian women were called *squaws*, and were the slaves of the men. They did all the labor for the family. They never took part in the games, but they and their children were allowed to look at the war-dances. The men were allowed to take and dismiss wives whenever they pleased. The Indians taught their rude and simple arts to their children.

Money.

The Indian money was called *wampum*, and was made of pieces of shells in the form of strings and belts. Besides being used in trade, it was used between nations and tribes as tokens of alliance and affection. Sachems, or chief men, kept wampum-belts as records of public acts.

Picture Writing.

The only written language of the Indians were rude picture-writings, with which they recorded warlike actions, deeds of brave men, and treaties of peace and alliance. But these actions and deeds were generally preserved in memory, and transmitted from father to son, and from chief to chief.

Funeral Ceremonies.

The Indians wrapped their dead in animal skins, and laid the body on sticks in the bottom of a shallow pit, or placed it in a sitting posture in the grave, or laid it on a high scaffold out of the reach of wild beasts. The trinkets, arms, tools, paints and food of the dead person were buried with the corpse, because it was thought that the soul would need them on its journey to the spirit-land. Mounds were raised over the graves, flowers were planted over them, and there the living friends mourned for many days.

Religion.

The Indians believed in a Great Good Spirit and a Great Evil Spirit. They considered the sun, the moon, the stars, meteors, fire, water, wind, thunder, and everything that they could not themselves control, as a kind of god. They also worshiped what they called *Manitou*, or the Great Master of Life. They sometimes killed animals as a sacrifice for sin. They also had some vague idea of a great flood that once covered the earth.

Government.

The chief ruler of each Indian tribe, or nation, was called the *sachem*, and was chosen because of his worth. The *chief* was the leader of the warriors, and was chosen because of his brave deeds in battle. All questions debated in council were decided by the sachem, and the warriors followed wherever the chief led. Good order always prevailed in the councils, and while one was speaking all the others listened with profound respect.

The Indian and the White Man.

Such were the savage inhabitants of the American continent when it was first found and occupied by white people from Europe. These so-called Indians were nearly all wanderers, and roamed over the lonely forests, free as the air they breathed, but did comparatively nothing to cultivate the rich soil beneath their feet. The white man at last found

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this beautiful continent. He came here with the industry and arts of civilization, and changed the appearance of everything. Cities, towns, villages and farms now cover the country which a few centuries ago was one vast wilderness in which the Red Man hunted and fished.

Mexico and Peru. The Indians of Mexico and Peru were highly civilized, having flourishing cities and towns and a regular government, and practicing many of the useful arts of civilized life. From ruins and mounds found in various parts of the present United States, it is believed that the Indians displaced a highly civilized ancient race, who are known by the general name of *Mound Builders*.

The Mound Builders.

Indian Population of the Present United States. The entire Indian population of the territory embraced by what is now the United States at the time of the first settlement of this region is estimated to have been less than three hundred thousand, or probably not more than two hundred thousand. This Indian population was divided into eight distinct nations, each with its own language. These eight Indian nations were the Algonquins, the Huron-Iroquois, the Catawbas, the Cherokees, the Uchees, the Natchez, the Mobilians, and the Dakotas, or Sioux.

Eight Indian Nations.

Algonquins. The largest and most numerous of these eight Indian nations was the Algonquins, who occupied the whole northern and central portion of the domain of the present United States east of the Mississippi and the greater portion of the Canadian provinces of Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, except the territory of the Huron-Iroquois, around Lakes Ontario and Erie, in both what is now the United States and Canada. The chief tribes of the Algonquins were the Abenakis of Maine, which embraced the Androscoggins, the Rorridgewocks, the Penobscots and the Passamaquoddies; the Pawtuckets of New Hampshire; the Massachusetts, the Nipmucs and the Wampanoags of Massachusetts; the Narragansetts of Rhode Island; the Pequods and the Mohegans of Connecticut; the Manhattans of southern New York; the Lenni-Lenapes, or Delawares, of New Jersey and eastern Pennsylvania; the Susquehannocks of the Susquehanna valley in Pennsylvania; the Nanticokes of Delaware and the eastern shore of Maryland; the Powhatans of Virginia; the Corees, the Hatteras and the Cheraws of eastern North Carolina; the Shawanese of Kentucky; the Miamis and the Piankeshaws of Ohio and Indiana; the Pottawatomies and the Kickapoos of Indiana and Illinois; the Illinois of central Illinois; the Ottawas of the southern peninsula of Michigan; the Menominees and the Chippewas of the northern peninsula of Michigan and of northern Wisconsin; the Sacs and Foxes of Wisconsin, and others.

Huron-Iroquois, or Six Nations. The Huron-Iroquois, occupying the region around Lakes Erie and Ontario, consisted of two great divisions—the Hurons, occupying the whole southern part of the present Canadian province of Ontario and

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the north-eastern part of Ohio, embracing the Wyandots and the Attioundirons of Ontario and the Eries and the Andastes of Ohio; and the Iroquois, or Six Nations, occupying the region comprised in all of the present northern, central and western New York, northern and western Pennsylvania and south-eastern Ohio. The Iroquois, or Six Nations, were the Mohawks, the Oneidas, the Onondagas, the Cayugas, the Senecas and the Tuscaroras, the last of whom were located in southern Virginia and northern North Carolina before 1713.

Catawbas, Cherokees, Uchees, Natchez, and Mobilians.

The Catawbas occupied the central region of the Carolinas. The Cherokees held the district embraced in the western portion of the Carolinas, eastern and middle Tennessee, and northern Georgia and Alabama. The Uchees were located in central and eastern Georgia. The Natchez held south-western Mississippi. The Mobilian tribes occupied most of the southern region of the United States east of the Mississippi, and embraced the Chickasaws of western Tennessee, northern Mississippi and northern Alabama; the Choctaws of southern Mississippi and southern Alabama; the Creeks of eastern Alabama and southern Georgia; the Yamasees of eastern South Carolina, and the Seminoles of Florida.

Dakotas, or Sioux.

The Dakotas, or Sioux, held the region west of the Mississippi and north of the Arkansas, as far west as half-way between the Mississippi and the Rocky Mountains, and embraced many tribes, such as the Assiniboines, along the Canadian frontier; the Minnetarees, the Mandans and the Riccarees of North Dakota; the Sioux proper of South Dakota; the Puncahs, the Omahas and the Otoes of eastern Nebraska; the Kansas and the Osages of eastern Kansas; the Missouris of Missouri, and the Iowas of Iowa. The Winnebagoes of south-eastern Wisconsin were the only Dakota tribe located east of the Mississippi.

Extreme Western Tribes.

West of the eight Indian nations mentioned were many tribes, such as the Pawnees of western Nebraska; the Cheyennes and the Arapahoes of Colorado; the Comanches and the Kiowas of Texas; the Navajoes of New Mexico; the Apaches, the Pimas, the Mouaves and the Yampais of Arizona; the Utahs of northern Utah and southern Wyoming; the Bannacks and the Nez Perces of Oregon and Idaho; the Cayuses of Oregon; the Pendoreilles and the Spokanes of Washington and Idaho; the Blackfeet and the Crows of western Montana; the Flatheads of Idaho, and the Modocs of northern California and southern Oregon.

Vast Change.

Such were the savage inhabitants of the greater portion of the Western Continent, or the New World, or America, when this continent was first discovered, explored and settled by the Caucasian, or white race from Europe. A few centuries ago this vast continent, now dotted with cities, towns, villages and beautiful farms, was the home and hunting-ground of these copper-colored savages.

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SECTION V.—AZTEC EMPIRE IN MEXICO AND CONQUEST BY THE SPANIARDS (A. D. 1195–1521).

Spanish Conquests and Colonies in America.

HAVING given an account of the discoveries by the Spaniards, Portuguese, English and French in America, we will now proceed to a view of the Spanish conquest and colonization in America. The Spaniards made settlements in various parts of North and South America; and their greatest exploits were the conquest of two civilized Indian empires—that of Mexico in North America and that of Peru in South America. Before proceeding with the Spanish conquest of these countries, we will give a brief historical sketch of Mexico.

Early History of Mexico.

The history of Mexico goes back as far as the sixth century of the Christian era. The native Mexican traditions, and the remains of ancient structures which are still to be found in the country, make it evident that the primitive inhabitants were possessed of a civilization equal to that of the Aztecs, who occupied the country when it was conquered by the Spaniards; but those aborigines of Mexico are a wholly prehistoric race.

The Toltecs.

The Toltecs entered the valley of Mexico early in the seventh century and built the city of Tollan, or Tula, and made it their capital. Some writers believe these people to have come from Central America, while others think them to have migrated from Asia by way of Behring Strait. The Toltecs are said to have been an agricultural people, and to have understood the mechanical arts. Their cities were of the cyclopæan character, and these people originated the system of astronomy which the Aztecs afterward adopted. Early in the eighth century a Toltec kingdom is said to have been founded by Icoatizin; and this kingdom lasted five centuries, at the end of which time it fell in consequence of a long period of pestilence and civil war, and the greater portion of the Toltecs migrated southward.

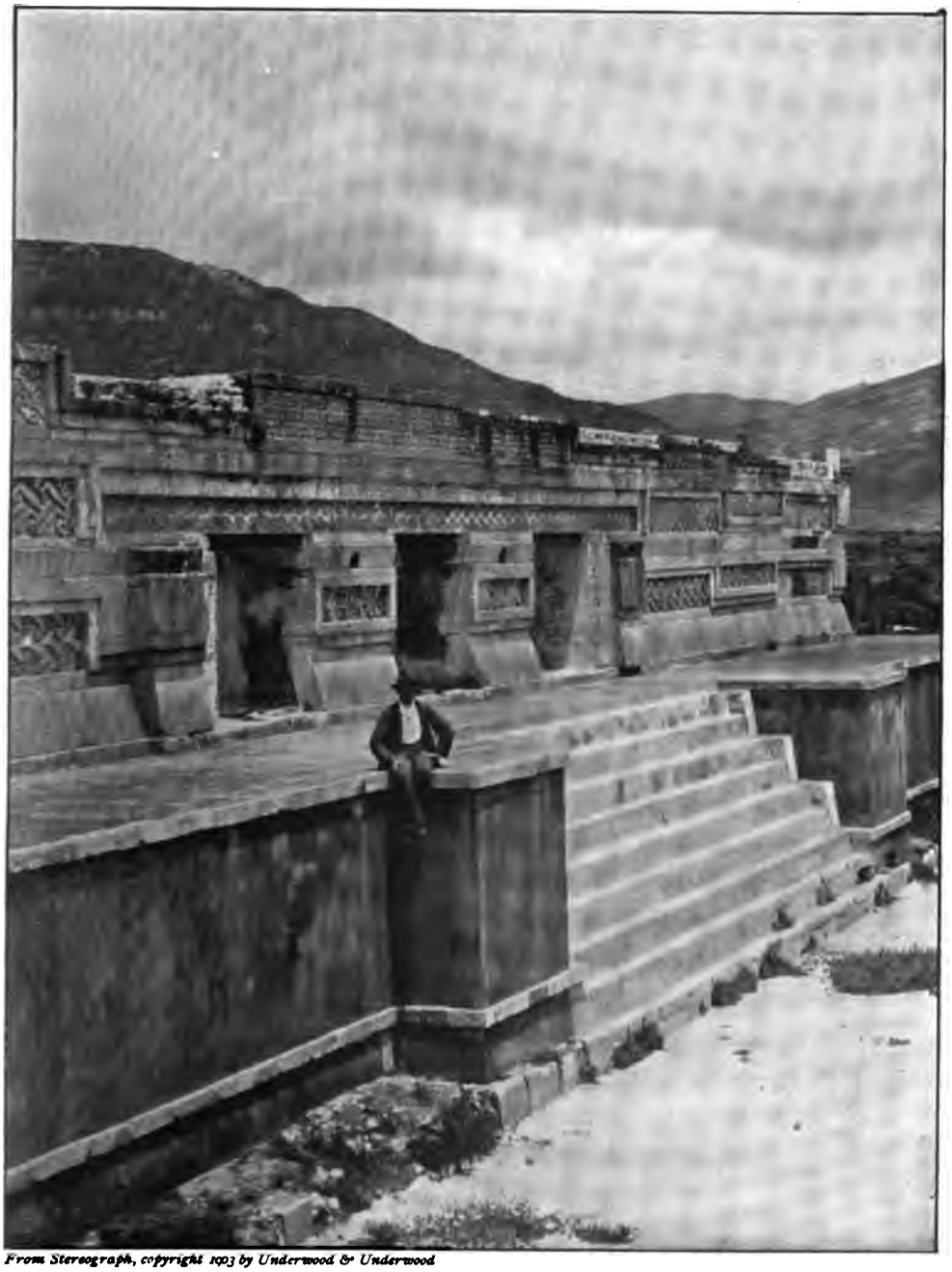
The Chichimecs.

In the thirteenth century, soon after the Toltecs had emigrated from Mexico, the Chichimecs, a fierce savage tribe who are said to have worshiped the sun as their father and the moon as their mother, migrated from the north into Mexico. The few Toltecs who remained in the country submitted to the invading Chichimecs, who settled peacefully in the country and became amalgamated with the Toltecs. From this amalgamation sprang the Colhuis, or Culhuas, who founded the kingdom of Colhuaca.

The Tepanecs, Techichimecs, and the Alcolhuis.

After the immigration of the Chichimecs into Mexico a number of other tribes entered the country, the most powerful of whom were the Tepanecs, who established their capital at Atzcapozalco, and founded one of the most powerful of the Mexican states. Another of these

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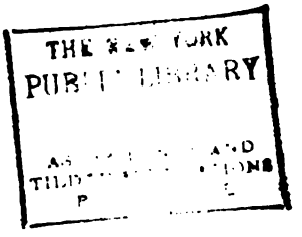


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AZTEC RUINS

Façade of a Temple near Mitla, Mexico

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tribes were the Techichimecs, who founded the republic of Tlascala. All these tribes spoke the Nohoa, or Nahuatl language. Another tribe were the Alcolhuis, who were considered the most refined, and were of the same race as the Toltecs. The Alcolhuis taught the Chichimecs agriculture, the mechanical arts, and the manners and customs of city life. In the course of time the Alcolhuis became amalgamated with the Chichimecs, and the two races founded the kingdom of Tezuco, or Acolhuacan.

The Aztecs, or Mexicans.

The Aztecs, or Mexicans, were the last of the tribes who permanently settled in the valley of Mexico. They had been in the country as long as the other tribes, but had not chosen any permanent abode. They migrated from Azatlan, a region of the North whose location is unknown, and they seem to have made several prolonged halts on their journey southward. The first of these halts seems to have been on the shores of the Great Salt Lake in Utah. Another halt appears to have been at the Gila river, and a third in the vicinity of the Presidio de los Llanos.

Their Migration to Mexico.

About A. D. 1195 the Aztecs arrived in Anáhuac, or the valley of Mexico, where they led a nomadic life for the next one hundred and thirty years, during which they waged an almost constant war with the other tribes, in which their numbers were vastly diminished.

Founding of the City of Mexico.

In 1325 the Aztecs founded the city of Tenochtitlan, on the islands of Lake Tezuco. The name of this city was afterward changed to Mexico, in honor of the Aztec god of war, Mexitli.

Aztec Conquest of the Other Tribes.

The other tribes bitterly hated the Aztecs, who had a severe struggle to found their kingdom; but the Aztecs persevered, and finally increased in wealth and power to such an extent that they were enabled to reduce their enemies to subjection. The conquering Aztecs subdued the surrounding country and established garrisons at commanding points; and finally all of Central and Southern Mexico, and a part of the country to the north, were included in the Aztec Empire. As the Aztecs grew more powerful they enlarged and improved their capital until its magnificence and extent excited the wonder and admiration of the Spanish conquerors, who were familiar with the splendors of the Old World.

Founding of the Aztec Monarchy.

For twenty-seven years after the founding of their capital the government of the Aztecs was administered by a council of twenty nobles. In 1352 they changed their government to an elective monarchy, and chose ACAMAPITZIN, or ACAMAPICHTLE, for their first king. At first the royal power was limited, but it increased with the Aztec nation's conquests and wealth.

Aztec Civilization and Government.

The Aztecs made rapid progress in civilization, and soon became the most highly civilized nation in Mexico. Their peculiar civilization was of a high order. The king was elected by the nobles. The candidate

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for the throne was required to be at least thirty years of age, and to have been a general in the royal armies. Military service was the basis of all rank in the Aztec state, and the nobles were the officers of the army. The Aztec king was vested with very great authority, but his powers were regulated by a fixed code of laws. The priests ranked next to the king and the nobles, and their power was restricted to spiritual matters. The priests exercised great influence, as they had charge of the education of the young, and were consulted in domestic affairs.

Aztec Laws and Institutions.

A system of rigid morality prevailed among all classes of Aztecs. Murder, theft, adultery and drunkenness were punished with death. Their civil code was as mild as their penal code was severe. A well-arranged system of courts existed in the capital and the provincial towns, at which complaints were heard and justice was administered. Marriage was encouraged, and the family relations constituted a prominent and favorable feature of Aztec life. Only the men were allowed the right to hold property.

Aztec Revenue, Army, Towns, Roads, Commerce, Etc.

The crown derived its revenues from state lands set apart in certain provinces, and from a tax upon agricultural products and a tribute consisting of articles of food and manufactured wares. The Aztec army was regularly organized, and its discipline was firm and well planned. The towns of the kingdom were connected with the capital by well-built roads, which the government kept in good repair, and an active commerce was carried on between the different parts of the kingdom. Large fleets of boats engaged in this traffic covered the lakes. No beasts of burden were used, and the Aztecs looked with wonder upon the horses which the Spaniards introduced into the country.

Aztec Art and Science.

The Aztecs carried on mining very successfully and were skillful in metallurgy. They were likewise well versed in astronomy; knew the true length of the year, the nature and cause of eclipses, the period of the solstices and the equinoxes, and the transit of the sun across the zenith of Mexico; and had a calendar which was ingenious and accurate. They possessed a remarkable knowledge of medicine, surgery, botany and natural history; and had made a wonderful progress in the science of geography at the time of their conquest by the Spaniards. Their agricultural and military implements were made of copper, bronze and obsidian. Agriculture was carried on by means of irrigation.

Aztec Religion.

The Aztecs were a deeply religious people, and were extremely zealous in the practice of the rites and ceremonies of their religion. Their religion was a polytheism. They believed in a Supreme Being, invisible, but omnipresent, omnipotent and omniscient, and requiring numerous assistants in the performance of his will, each of whom presided over some special natural phenomenon or phase of human existence.

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The Divinity of Death
Sacrificial Stone

AZTEC DIVINITIES
Goddess of the Moon

Goddess of the Waters
Chacmool Statue

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Aztec Deities and Worship.

Huitzilopochtli, the god of war, was the chief deity and the patron divinity of the Aztec nation. Next was Quetzalcoatl, the "white god" of Mexican mythology, who taught the Aztecs the arts of peace and good government, and forbade human sacrifices. All the Aztec gods were represented by idols of clay, wood, stone or precious metals. Great numbers of priests were attached to the temples, and the religious ceremonies were conducted on a scale of the greatest magnificence. The principal religious ceremonial of the Aztecs were human sacrifices; and twenty-five hundred persons, mainly captives taken in war, are said to have been annually sacrificed on the altars of the capital.

Human Sacrifices.

Aztec Temples.

The Aztecs had two kinds of temples, low and circular, or high and pyramidal, on the tops of which the sacrifices took place. Torquemada estimates that there were forty thousand of these temples throughout the Aztec Empire. There were hundreds of them in each principal Aztec city, besides the great temple with several smaller ones within its precincts. There were other small courts with as many as six temples in each outlying quarter of the city, and there were temples on the mountains and along the public highways. The temples were solid pyramidal masses of earth cased with brick or stone, many of them being more than one hundred feet square and of a still greater height. The ascent to the temple was by a flight of one hundred and fourteen steps on the outside, so arranged that it was necessary to pass around the whole edifice four times to reach the top; and the base of the temple is believed to have been three hundred feet square. The summit of the temple was a large area paved with broad, flat stones; and on it were two towers or sanctuaries, which contained the idols of the deities, and before each of which was an altar on which a fire was kept constantly burning. The top of this remarkable edifice commanded a splendid view of the city, the lake, the valley and the surrounding mountains.

Teocalli, or Great Temple of the City of Mexico.

The most remarkable building of the city of Mexico was the great Teocalli, or temple, completed in 1486; which was encompassed by a stone wall about eight feet high, ornamented on the other side by figures of serpents in bas-relief, and pierced on its four sides by gateways opening on the four main streets. Over each gate was an arsenal; and near the temple were barracks, which were garrisoned by ten thousand soldiers. The temple was a solid pyramidal structure of earth and pebbles, coated on the outside with hewn stone. It was square, its four sides facing the cardinal points of the compass; and it was five stories high, each story receding so as to be smaller than the one below it.

City of Tenochtitlan, or Mexico.

At the time of the Spanish conquest of Mexico, Tenochtitlan, or the city of Mexico, the capital of the Aztec Empire, was a large and splendid city, being nine miles in circumference, and having about sixty thousand houses and probably a population of half a million. Most of

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Its Great Palaces. the streets were short and narrow, and were lined with mean houses. The large streets were intersected by many canals crossed by bridges. The royal palace near the center of the city was a pile of low, irregular stone edifices of enormous size. Another palace, which was assigned to Fernando Cortez when he entered the city, was large enough to accommodate his entire army.

Police of the Capital. The capital had an efficient and vigilant police, and a thousand men were employed daily in watering and sweeping its streets. The lake that surrounded the city was very brackish, and pure water was supplied to the inhabitants by means of an aqueduct from the neighboring hill of Chapultepec, where Montezuma had a summer palace surrounded by vast and magnificent gardens.

King Montezuma II. The Aztec king AHUITZOTL was succeeded on the Mexican throne by his nephew MONTEZUMA II., in 1502. Montezuma II. was an active and warlike sovereign, and made conquests as far south into Central America as Honduras and Nicaragua. He made numerous changes in the internal administration of his kingdom, and was distinguished for the strictness and stringency with which he executed the laws. He liberally rewarded those who served him faithfully, and expended vast sums on the public works. He maintained his court on a scale of magnificence never before equaled in Mexico. Heavy taxes were imposed upon his subjects to provide for these expenditures, and these caused frequent insurrections.

Invasion of Mexico by the Spaniards under Fernando Cortez. As we have seen, the Spaniard Cordova discovered Mexico in 1517. In 1519, when King Montezuma II. was at the height of his power and glory, Fernando Cortez, a Spanish adventurer, at the head of five hundred and fifty Spaniards, and with ten pieces of cannon and about a dozen horsemen, invaded the Aztec Empire for purposes of conquest, landing on the eastern coast. Cortez defeated the natives who endeavored to prevent the landing, founded the city of Vera Cruz (True Cross), burned his ships, left a small garrison to defend his new conquest, and advanced into the interior.

Conquest of the Republic of Tlascala by Cortez. Cortez first subdued the warlike republic of Tlascala, defeating the Tlascalans in four battles and entering the city of Tlascala on September 18, 1519. The natives were astonished at the fair skin and the martial prowess of the Spanish invaders, and believed them to be beings of divine origin, so that a rumor was circulated that the gods had undertaken the conquest of the country. Cortez vainly endeavored to persuade the Tlascalans to abjure their religion and to accept Christianity, but he succeeded in inducing them to acknowledge themselves vassals of the King of Spain.

Cortez remained at Tlascala twenty days; after which he resumed his march toward the city of Tenochtitlan, or Mexico, accompanied by a

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force of several thousand Tlascalans who had espoused his cause. His route lay through Cholula, the inhabitants of which were induced by the Aztecs to attempt a treacherous attack upon the Spanish invaders. Cortez severely punished the Cholulans for their intended attack, after which he resumed his march to the city of Mexico, before which he arrived November 8, 1519.

Chastisement of the Cholulans by Cortez.

King Montezuma II. had already sent ambassadors to Cortez to warn him not to approach the capital. The Aztec king now changed his policy, received the Spanish invaders with great pomp, and assigned them one of the largest and strongest palaces in the city for their quarters. The Spaniards soon converted this palace into a fortress. They were very much surprised at the extent and magnificence of the Aztec capital, and from the very beginning they prepared to conquer it, along with the whole country.

Reception of Cortez by King Montezuma.

The Aztecs strongly disapproved of their king's course in permitting the Spaniards to enter the capital, and manifested their hostility to the invaders on every possible occasion. At length a party of seventeen Aztecs attacked a Spanish detachment. Cortez thereupon sought an interview with Montezuma II. in the Aztec monarch's own palace, seized him and conveyed him a captive to the Spanish quarters, and threatened him with instant death if he should give any sign to the multitude in the streets that he was a prisoner. The Aztecs would have attempted to rescue their captive king had he not assured them that he was going of his own free will to visit the Spanish commander.

Aztec Hostility.

Seizure of Montezuma II. by Cortez.

When Cortez arrived at his quarters he put his royal captive in irons, and captured and burned to death the seventeen natives who had attacked the Spaniards. He then forced Montezuma II. to take an oath of allegiance to the King of Spain, and to induce his nobles to do the same; after which he obtained from the captive monarch a sum of gold equal in value to one hundred thousand ducats.

Cruel Treatment of Montezuma II. by Cortez.

In this emergency Cortez was informed that an expedition from Spain had landed on the eastern coast of Mexico, under the command of Narvaez, who had come to take from Cortez the command of the Spanish troops in Mexico. Cortez left two hundred of his troops to hold the Spanish position in the city of Mexico, and hastened with seventy troops to Cholula, where he was reinforced by one hundred and fifty troops whom he had left there, after which he marched against Narvaez, who was encamped in one of the Cempoallan cities with nine hundred Spanish soldiers, eighty horses and a dozen pieces of artillery. By a bold stroke Cortez captured Narvaez and his entire force. The vanquished troops of Narvaez readily enlisted in the service of their captor, and with this reinforcement Cortez returned to the city of Mexico.

Capture of a Rival Spanish Force under Narvaez by Cortez.

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Montezuma II. Killed by His Enraged Subjects.

Upon his return to the Aztec capital Cortez found the inhabitants in open rebellion against his troops. He brought out Montezuma and forced him to address his subjects; but the enraged Aztecs discharged a volley of missiles at their captive king, who thus received a mortal wound, of which he died several days afterward, June, 1520. Such was the melancholy fate of the last monarch of the Aztecs.

Cortez Driven from the Capital.

The Aztecs now assailed the Spaniards with desperate fury, drove them from the city, and literally annihilated their rear-guard in their retreat across the causeway leading to the mainland. The retreat lasted six days; but at length Cortez halted on the plain of Otumba, where an

Victory of Cortez.

overwhelming Aztec force attacked him, July 7, 1520, but he came forth victorious. This battle settled the fate of Mexico. Cortez instantly proceeded to Tlascala, where he collected an auxiliary force of natives, after which he speedily reduced the neighboring provinces, and again appeared before the city of Mexico, April 28, 1521.

Guatemozin's Defense of His Capital.

GUATEMOZIN, the new Aztec king, the nephew and son-in-law of the ill-fated Montezuma II., was a man of firmness and decision. He held his capital against the Spanish invaders for seventy-seven days, during which the city was literally reduced to ruins by the Indian allies of Cortez. By the final assault, August 15, 1521, the Spaniards captured what was left of the beautiful capital of the Aztec Empire. King Guatemozin sought to escape with his family by the lake; but was pursued and taken prisoner by the Spaniards, who treated him with great cruelty, putting him on a bed of fiery coals, from which he was at once released by Cortez. But Cortez soon put Guatemozin and many of his nobles to death.

Fall of the Capital.

Guatemozin's Cruel Death.

Final Conquest of the Aztec Empire by Cortez.

With the conquest of the remainder of the country the same year the Aztec Empire ended, and for three centuries (A. D. 1521–1821) Mexico was a province of Spain. After effecting the conquest of the country, Cortez rebuilt the city of Mexico upon its present plan, employing a large force of natives for that purpose. He exerted himself to introduce European civilization and Roman Catholic Christianity into the country. He established a military government in the conquered land with himself as its chief. In October, 1522, King Charles I. of Spain, Emperor Charles V. of Germany, issued a decree naming the conquered country *New Spain*, and appointed Cortez governor of the new province. The Spanish conquerors enslaved the natives, and compelled them to work in the mines and to till the soil.

The City of Mexico Rebuilt by Cortez.

His Rule in Mexico, or New Spain.

Natives Enslaved.

New Spain as a Spanish Viceroyalty.

In 1528 the Spanish king suppressed the system set up by Cortez, and made New Spain a Spanish viceroyalty, which it remained during the entire subsequent period of the Spanish dominion, during which period there were sixty-four viceroys, all but one of them being natives of Spain. The province continued to improve, in spite of the policy

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pursued by Spain, which aimed at little besides extracting as much treasure from the province as it would yield.

Ingratitude of Charles V. toward Cortez.

Notwithstanding all his services to the Spanish crown, Cortez was treated with ingratitude by his sovereign, and he died in comparative obscurity. It was with great difficulty that he could obtain an audience from the Emperor Charles V. When one day the conqueror of Mexico rushed through the multitude which surrounded the Emperor's coach, and placed his foot on the step of the door, Charles inquired who this man was. Cortez replied: "It is he who has given you more kingdoms than your ancestors left you cities."

Conversion of the Mexicans.

The Spanish conquerors devoted their first efforts to propagating the Christian religion in Mexico, and for this purpose they invited missionaries from Europe. Between the years 1522 and 1545 numbers of monks came into Mexico from various parts of Europe to assist in the conversion of the natives; and to conciliate the Mexicans many practices hitherto unknown to the Roman ritual were admitted and consecrated.

The Humane Missionaries, Sahagun and Las Casas.

The missionaries honorably exerted themselves to protect the Mexicans from the sanguinary cruelty of the Spaniards. Among these Sahagun and Las Casas were especially distinguished for their benevolent exertions in behalf of the conquered Mexicans. These two humane missionaries obtained bulls from the Pope and edicts from the Spanish government fully recognizing the claims of the Indians to the rights of humanity, and they saved the native Mexicans from the wretched fate which swept away the native population of almost every other Spanish American colony, though they failed to obtain a full measure of justice. The protection thus accorded by the regular and secular clergy to the native Mexicans caused them to be more ardently attached to the Roman Catholic Church than were the Spaniards themselves; and this attachment is still felt by the Mexicans, though their country has recovered its independence. But the native Mexicans were reduced to a condition of abject serfdom, differing little from that of the serfs of Russia or Poland.

SECTION VI.—SPANISH CONQUEST OF PERU AND OCCUPATION OF AMERICA (A. D. 1532–1582).

The Empire of Peru under the Incas.

Peru, which was conquered by the Spaniards under Francisco Pizarro in 1532, was originally inhabited by several Indian tribes who possessed a high degree of civilization, a simple but just code of laws and a well-arranged system of government under a sovereign called the *Inca*. The Peruvian government was an absolute despotism mildly

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administered, and the military class was the most favored, as the great aim of the state was territorial expansion. The civilization of the ancient Peruvians, though vastly superior to that of the Indian nations around them, was inferior to that of the Aztecs in Mexico. Education was restricted to the ruling class, and there were laws which compelled a son to pursue his father's occupation, prohibiting him from receiving an education superior to his station in life. The Peruvians had cities, and had made considerable progress in the useful arts.

Ancient Peruvian Religion.

The religion of the ancient Peruvians consisted in worshiping the sun, from which the Inca claimed descent. The Inca's person was considered divine. He had numerous wives, the chief one of whom was required to be his eldest sister. He also had as many concubines as he desired. His son by his principal wife, his eldest sister, was the heir to the throne. When the Inca died he was supposed to have been called home to the mansion of his father, the sun.

Balboa's Desire to Find Peru.

In 1512 Vasco Nuñez de Balboa, the governor of the Spanish colony of Darien, on the Isthmus of Panama, was informed by the Indians that there was a country far south of the Isthmus where gold was as commonly in use as iron was with the Spaniards. Balboa vainly endeavored to find this rich land.

Invasion of Peru by the Spaniards under Francisco Pizarro.

In 1524 Francisco Pizarro, a Spanish adventurer, made a voyage to the coast of Peru, but failed to accomplish anything. In 1531 the King of Spain granted Pizarro the titles of Governor and Captain-General of all the countries that he should conquer; and that adventurer sailed for Peru with his four brothers and a few followers, arriving in that country late in January, after a voyage of fourteen days from Panama. Pizarro captured and plundered a town in the province of Coaque, and was soon afterward reinforced by the arrival of one hundred and thirty Spaniards under Almagro, his second in command. The Spanish adventurers then laid the foundations of the town of San Miguel, in the valley of Tangarala.

Civil war in Peru between Huascar and Atahualpa.

At that time the empire of the Incas was distracted by a civil war. HUAYNA CAPAC, the late Inca, had divided his dominions between his two sons, HUASCAR and ATAHUALPA. In the civil war which had broken out between the two brothers Atahualpa had defeated his brother and taken him prisoner. He now encamped with his army at Cajamarca, whither Pizarro hastened to meet him in September, 1532, with a force of one hundred and seventy-seven men, with the professed design of acting as mediator between Atahualpa and his brother, but with the perfidious purpose of seizing the victorious Inca in the same manner that Cortez had seized the unfortunate Montezuma II. in Mexico. The Inca received Pizarro with great kindness and readily consented to an interview. The Inca visited the Spanish invaders with a

Reception of Pizarro by the Inca Atahualpa.

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barbarous magnificence and an ostentatious display of wealth which inflamed the cupidity of Pizarro and his followers.

Atahualpa and the Spanish Priest Valverde.

On reaching the Spanish camp the Inca was addressed by Valverde, the chaplain of the invaders, in a long discourse. After a brief notice of the mysteries of creation and redemption, the priest proceeded to explain the doctrine of the Pope's supremacy. He dwelt upon the grant which Pope Alexander VI. had made to the Spanish crown, and by virtue of that grant he called upon Atahualpa to embrace Christianity at once and to acknowledge himself a vassal of the King of Spain. The Inca was utterly perplexed, and inquired where Valverde had learned such wonderful things. The priest, showing his breviary to the Inca, replied: "In this book." Atahualpa took the book, turned over the leaves, and then put it to his ear to hear what the book had to say. He suddenly flung the breviary to the ground, exclaiming: "This tells me nothing!" Valverde exclaimed: "Blasphemy! blasphemy! to arms, to arms, my Christian brethren! avenge the profanation of God's word by the polluted hands of infidels!"

Valverde's Treacherous Attack on the Peruvians.

This solemn farce seems to have been preconcerted. Before Valverde had ceased speaking, the trumpets sounded a charge, and a dreadful fire of musketry and artillery was opened on the defenseless Peruvians. In the midst of their surprise and consternation, they were charged by the Spanish cavalry; and, as the Peruvians had never before seen a horse, the appearance of the Spanish cavalry seemed like something supernatural, and increased their dismay to utter helplessness.

Seizure of the Inca Atahualpa.

Atahualpa was seized and carried a prisoner to the Spanish camp, while the triumphant invaders satiated themselves with the rich spoils of conquest.

Pizarro's Treachery and Atahualpa's Cruel Death.

The unfortunate Inca endeavored to obtain his release by paying a ransom in gold equal in value to seventeen and a half million dollars. The cruel and treacherous Pizarro accepted the offer; but when he had received the gold he refused to release Atahualpa, and caused him to be tried under the most iniquitous pretenses and sentenced to be burned to death. When the Inca consented to receive baptism from Valverde his sentence was so far mitigated that he was first strangled at the stake, after which his body was burned, August 29, 1533.

The Inca Manco Capac.

The victorious Pizarro then marched upon Cuzco, the ancient capital of the Incas; and, as Huascar had been slain by order of Atahualpa, the Spanish conqueror proclaimed MANCO CAPAC, a half-brother of Atahualpa, Inca.

Founding of Lima by Pizarro.

For the purpose of establishing a new capital for Peru near the Pacific coast, Pizarro founded the city of Lima, in the valley of the river Rimac, January 6, 1535.

The Spanish conquerors treated the vanquished Peruvians with the most barbarous cruelty. At last the oppressed Peruvians, driven to

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Peruvian Revolt under Manco Capac.

despair, rose in arms under Manco Capac to recover their independence, took and burned Cuzco, and massacred such of the Spaniards as they took prisoners.

Overthrow and Execution of Almagro by Pizarro.

The Spanish robbers quarreled among themselves about the division of the spoils of conquest; and a civil war broke out between Pizarro and Almagro, in which Almagro was defeated, taken prisoner and executed. The triumphant Pizarro then crushed the outbreak of the Peruvians, whom he treated with the most fiendish cruelty and reduced to abject slavery. He set up a military government and ruled the province with merciless rigor. For almost three centuries Peru remained a Spanish province (A. D. 1532–1824).

Pizarro's Cruel Rule.

Assassination of Pizarro by Almagro's Son.

When the King of Spain was informed of Pizarro's tyranny in Peru he sent Vaca de Castro over in 1540 to investigate the matter. Before Castro arrived at Lima the cruel Pizarro was assassinated by Almagro's son, who proclaimed himself governor of Peru. The younger Almagro took up arms to resist Castro, who had orders to assume the governorship in case of Pizarro's death; but Almagro was defeated, taken prisoner and executed. Castro was recognized as governor of Peru, and devoted his attention to a settlement of the affairs of the newly-acquired province.

Almagro's Overthrow and Execution by Castro.

Overthrow and Execution of Gonzalo Pizarro by Castro.

Castro was superseded by Blasco Nuñez Vela, who had been appointed viceroy of Peru by the King of Spain, and who came charged with the duty of inaugurating a new and better system of government, and especially to liberate the Indians from slavery and to impose a fairer system of taxation upon them. These measures produced a civil war in Peru, in which the rebels were under the leadership of Gonzalo Pizarro, son of the conqueror of Peru. This civil war lasted several years, and ended in the defeat of the insurgents and the capture and execution of Gonzalo Pizarro in 1548. The government of Peru was then established on a more solid and permanent basis, and for almost three centuries Peru remained tranquil as a Spanish province.

Peru as a Spanish Province.

Peruvians Enslaved and Forced to Work in the Mines.

The government which the Spaniards established in Peru was far more oppressive and iniquitous than that which they introduced into Mexico, because the Peruvian mines were almost the only objects which engaged the attention of the Spaniards from the time of their conquest of the country. The Spaniards devised a horrible system of conscription for working the mines; and all the Indians between the ages of eighteen and fifty were enrolled in seven lists, the persons on each list being obliged to work in the mines six months, so that this forced labor came on the unfortunate Indians at intervals of three and a half years. Four out of every five were supposed to perish annually in these deadly labors; and, to add to the misery of the natives, they were not permitted to purchase the necessaries of life from any except privileged

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dealers, who remorselessly and unscrupulously robbed them of their earnings.

Chili and Its People.

At the time of the Spanish conquest of Peru, Chili was occupied by a number of kindred Indian tribes who called themselves *Alapu-che*, "the people of the land," and who spoke a common language. The northern part of Chili had been conquered by the Inca of Peru about the middle of the fifteenth century, but the Incas were never able to subdue the southern tribes.

Diego Almagro's Unsuccessful Invasion of Chili.

After the Spanish conquest of Peru, the Spaniards, finding that Northern Chili had been subject to the Incas, resolved to conquer that country likewise. A Spanish expedition under Diego Almagro entered Chili from Peru in 1535, and advanced southward into the territories of the Purumancian Indians, who drove them back to Peru.

Conquest of Chili by the Spaniards under Valdivia.

In 1540 Pedro de Valdivia, an able and prudent Spanish officer, led an expedition against Chili, defeated the Indians, and founded the city of Santiago, named in honor of the patron saint of Spain. The Indians made a desperate effort to destroy the town, but were defeated. After receiving a reinforcement from Peru, Valdivia advanced southward into the country of the Araucanian Indians, who attacked and almost annihilated his army, thus compelling him to retreat to Santiago. He returned to Peru for reinforcements; and in 1550 he came back to Santiago with a large and well-armed force, and marched southward and founded the city of Concepcion, on the present site of Penco. Four thousand Araucanians attacked Concepcion, but were defeated with great slaughter, their chief being among the slain. The war proceeded with terrible fury; and in 1559 Valdivia was captured and put to death by the Indians, who then took and destroyed Concepcion, and even marched upon Santiago, but were driven back.

His Founding of Santiago de Chili.

His Defeats, Capture and Death by the Araucanian Indians.

Successful Resistance of the Araucanians.

For more than a century after their arrival in Chili the Spaniards made persistent efforts to conquer the Araucanians, but always failed. In 1665 they concluded a treaty with the Indian tribes south of the Bobio, acknowledging their independence; but the war was renewed in 1723, and lasted for half a century with brief intervals of peace, until 1773. The Spaniards made Chili a viceroyalty.

Kingdom of Quito under Spanish Rule.

The Indian kingdom of Quito, which had also been subdued by the Incas of Peru and made a part of their empire, also came under the Spanish dominion, and was made a presidency of the viceroyalty of Peru, being ruled by Spanish governors from 1553 to 1822. The towns of Quito and Guayaquil were founded by the Spaniards in 1535, the same year as the founding of Lima.

Towns of Quito and Guayaquil.

The coast of Venezuela had been discovered by Columbus during his third voyage, in 1498. In 1499 Ojeda and Amerigo Vespucci explored the coast of Venezuela and Colombia; and, finding an Indian village

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Discovery of Venezuela by Columbus and Amerigo Vespucci.

built on piles over the water on the shore of Lake Maracaybo, they named it *Venezuela*, or Little Venice—a name eventually applied to the entire territory of the present republic. The Spaniards soon took possession of both Venezuela and Colombia, and gold was discovered in the coast range in 1540. They founded the colony of New Granada in 1510, which became a separate viceroyalty in 1718. In the territory of Venezuela the Spaniards founded some flourishing towns—Cumana in 1520, Coro in 1527, Tocuyo in 1545, Barquisemeto in 1552, Valencia in 1555, Carácas in 1567, and Porto Bello in 1584.

Spanish Occupation and Colonization of Venezuela and New Granada.

Spanish Occupation of Upper Peru and Buenos Ayres.

The discovery of silver in the territory of Bolivia and Buenos Ayres quickened Spanish enterprise in South America. Bolivia, or Upper Peru, which had also formed a part of the empire of the Incas of Peru, came into the possession of the Spaniards after their conquest of Peru, and formed part of the viceroyalty of Peru until 1776, when it became a part of the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres. Buenos Ayres was founded by the Spaniards in 1535. The colony was a part of the viceroyalty of Peru until 1776, when the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres was created, which included Buenos Ayres, with Uruguay, Paraguay and Bolivia.

Town of Buenos Ayres Founded.

Paraguay under Jesuit Missions.

The first Spanish settlement in Paraguay was Asuncion, founded in 1536. The colony prospered wonderfully, and was erected into a bishopric in 1555. In 1557 Jesuit missions were established in Paraguay, and these met with wonderful success in the Christianization and civilization of the neighboring Indians, so that two centuries later there were one hundred and fifty thousand civilized Indians in Paraguay.

St. Augustine, Florida, and Santa Fé, New Mexico, Founded by Spaniards.

While the Spaniards had thus been taking possession of and colonizing Mexico and South America during the sixteenth century, the oldest towns within the limits of the present United States were also founded by the Spaniards. In 1565 Pedro Melendez de Avilez, after massacring a colony of French Protestants that had attempted to settle on the St. John's River in Florida, founded the city of St. Augustine, on the eastern coast of Florida. In 1582 De Espejo founded Santa Fé, in New Mexico.

Spain's Vast Dominion in America.

Spanish Occupation of the Philippines.

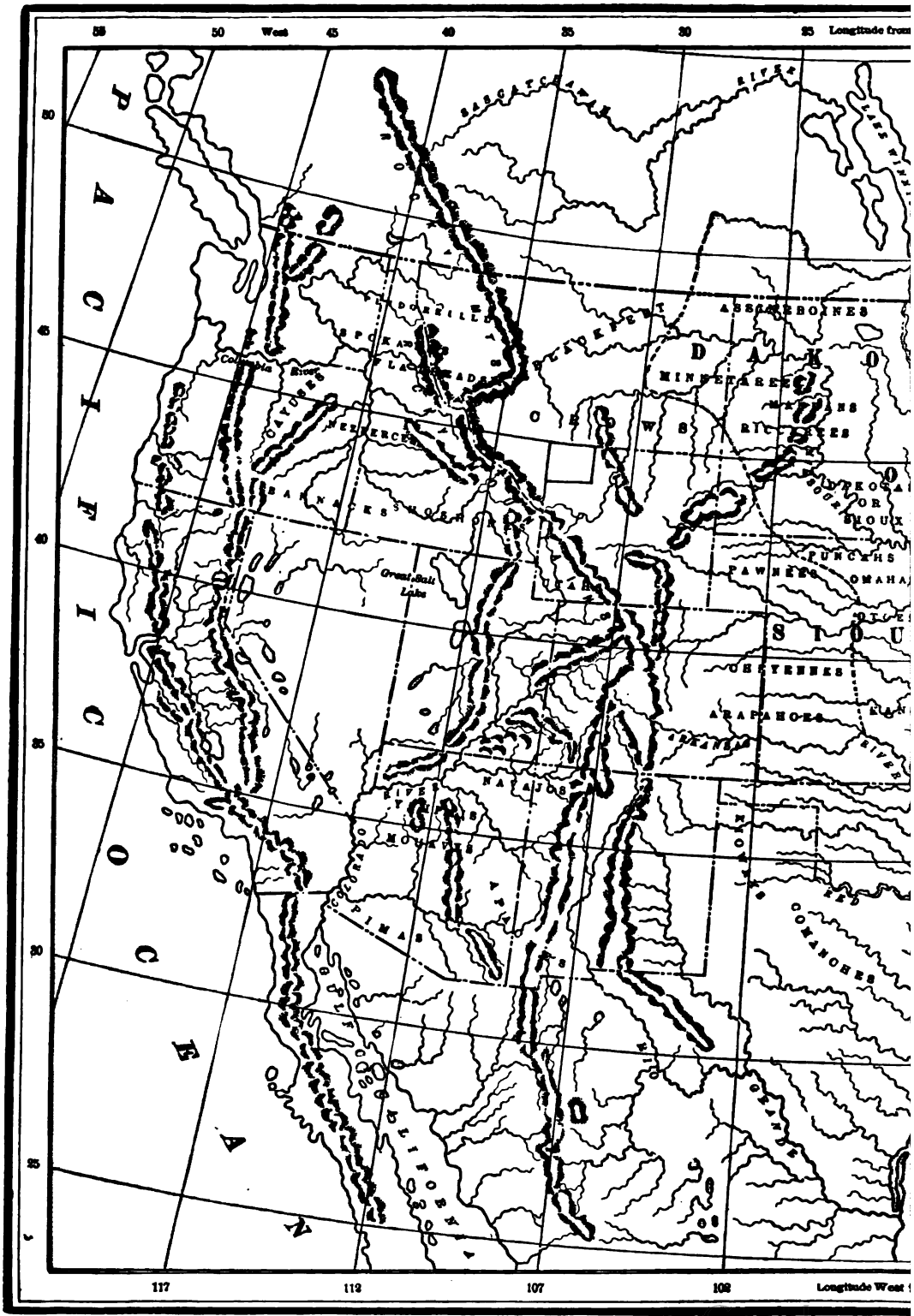
Thus, in the sixteenth century, Spain obtained possession of Florida, Mexico, Central America, and all of South America except Guiana and Brazil, the latter of which was claimed by the Portuguese. The precious metals which Spain obtained from her American possessions contributed to make her for a time the leading power of Europe, but an inordinate thirst for the gold and silver of America caused the Spaniards to neglect agriculture and manufactures. The Spanish American colonies increased very slowly in population, and none of these were as prosperous as the Philippine Islands, which had been taken possession of by the Spaniards and settled by a colony from Mexico in 1564.

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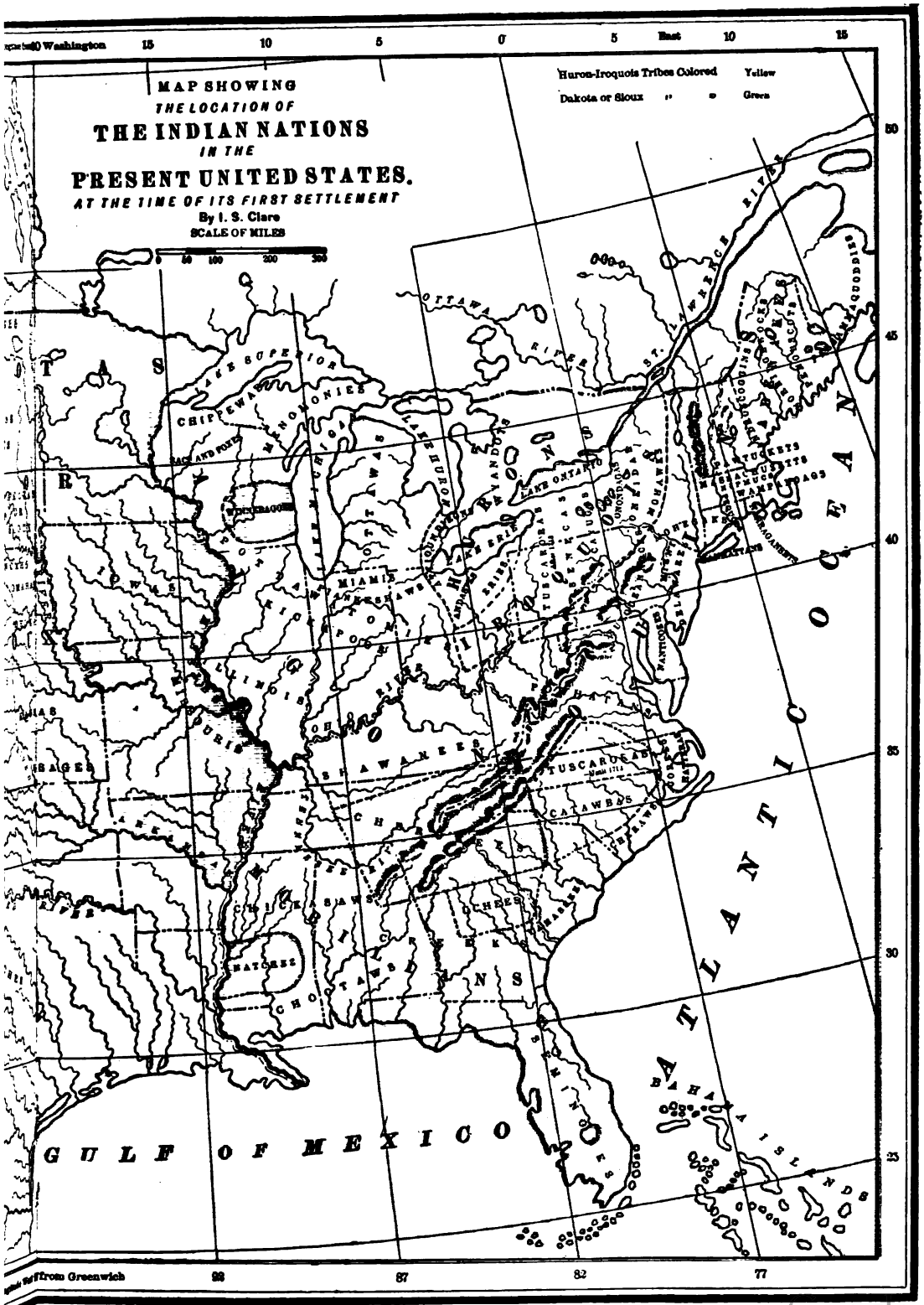
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CHAPTER XXXIII.

STATES-SYSTEM AND REFORMATION.

SECTION I.—FRENCH WARS IN ITALY AND RISE OF STATES-SYSTEM (A. D. 1494–1515).

Rise of the European States-System.

We now return to resume the narrative of European history, which we left off at the close of the Middle Ages and the beginning of the modern era. The common interests of the several states of Europe had been vastly multiplied by the progress of civilization. Certain events were perceived to affect all European nations alike, particularly the progress of the Ottoman Turks and the rapid growth of opinions in every European country contrary to the doctrines of the established Church. The new art of printing increased the interchange of ideas, and the founding of European colonies in America and Asia led to more intimate commercial relations between the European states. All these causes tended to develop the *European States-System*—a league of independent powers widely different in their respective constitutions, but whose relations are determined and maintained by diplomacy or by the science of international law.

Balance of Power

The preservation of the *Balance of Power*—the independence of all the European states by preventing any one of them from acquiring such a preponderance that would menace the general security—became the chief object, and demanded from every European government a vigilant attention to the affairs of other nations, thus giving rise to many alliances and counter-alliances and much diplomatic activity. States of inferior rank—like Savoy, Lorraine and the Swiss Republic—were protected by their more powerful neighbors as convenient smaller weights in the balance.

The European States.

At the beginning of the sixteenth century, Spain, under Ferdinand and Isabella, was the most powerful monarchy in Europe; while France, under Louis XII., the first of the Orleans branch of the Valois dynasty, was also a powerful monarchy; and England, under Henry VII., the first of the Tudor dynasty, had also risen into importance; but the Empire existed only in theory, the Emperor Maximilian I. being a

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powerful prince only as the head of the House of Hapsburg, and Archduke of Austria, Count of the Tyrol, Duke of Styria and Carinthia, and regent of the Netherlands. In Italy the republics of Venice, Genoa and Florence were preëminent; while the Duchy of Milan and the Kingdom of Naples and Sicily were contested between the French and the Spaniards. Scotland and the Scandinavian kingdoms occupied a secondary place; Poland was a half-barbarous kingdom on the eastern frontiers of European civilization; Hungary was a bulwark against the Ottoman Turks, whose continuous progress, under warlike Sultans, alarmed all Christendom; and Russia ranked more as an Asiatic power than a European one.

Prodigality of Charles VIII. of France.

During the last years of the fifteenth century King Charles VIII. of France undertook to enforce the claim to Naples which he inherited through his father from Charles of Maine. He wasted in tournaments and festivities the entire sum provided for the prosecution of his grand schemes of conquest, and he was enabled to proceed only by borrowing fifty thousand crowns from a Milanese merchant. After entering Italy he borrowed and pawned the jewels of the Duchess of Savoy and the Marchioness of Montferrat, for the prosecution of his ambitions and warlike enterprise.

Ludovico Sforza, Duke of Milan.

Ludovico Sforza, the uncle of the reigning Duke of Milan, had invited the French king into Italy for the purpose of obtaining his protection in the usurpation of the duchy. This prince was one of the most unscrupulous plotters of the age, and he was suspected of having poisoned his nephew, who died about that time.

Piero de Medici, of Florence, and His Exile.

Florence was the old ally of France; but Piero de Medici, who was then the ruler of that republic, was bound by a treaty to King Alfonso II. of Naples. A tumult which arose against Piero de Medici drove him to the opposite extreme of offering to put the King of France in possession of all the fortresses of Tuscany and to furnish him with a loan of two hundred thousand florins. The Florentines were so enraged at this humiliating subserviency of their ruler that they drove the Medici into exile, confiscated their goods and set a price on their heads.

Savonarola, the Reformer of Florence.

The Dominican monk and reformer Savonarola, who had foretold the coming of the French as ministers of divine vengeance for Italian corruptions—especially the notorious wickedness of Pope Alexander VI. and his family, the Borgias—now came to the head of affairs in Florence. He appeared before Charles VIII. at Lucca, and predicted for him an earthly victory and a heavenly glory on condition that he protected the liberties of Florence. The French king took up his residence in Florence, but when he proposed to tax the city and recall the Medici the Florentines rose *en masse* in defense of their rights and drove him from the city.

The French Driven from Florence.

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ENTRY OF CHARLES VIII INTO NAPLES, MAY 12, 1495

From the Painting by F. E. Féron

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Pope Alexander VI., Sultan Bajazet II. and Zizim.

Charles VIII. entered Rome with an army of fifty thousand men and a train of artillery. The personal wickedness of Pope Alexander VI. was intensified in the opinion of his contemporaries by his unnatural alliance with Sultan Bajazet II. of Turkey. Zizim, the Sultan's younger brother and hated rival, who had sought refuge with the Knights of St. John at Rhodes, was sent to France for greater security in 1483, and remained in various fortresses belonging to the order for several years; while Bajazet II. paid a liberal annual allowance for his maintenance, in order to keep him out of the way. The unfortunate Zizim was afterward committed to the Pope's keeping, and Alexander VI. made use of so valuable a prize in his negotiations with the Sultan.

French Designs.

It was well known that the King of France designed to conquer the Turks and to restore the Eastern Empire, the title to which he had purchased from Andrew Palæologus, nephew of the last reigning Greek Emperor. Pope Alexander VI. informed the Sultan that the French king was scheming to acquire possession of Zizim to further his plans against the Ottoman Empire. Bajazet II. then offered three hundred thousand ducats for the murder of his brother; and, as Zizim died within a few months, it was generally believed that his death was caused by a slow poison administered by the Pope's order.

Murder of Zizim.

Conquest of Naples by Charles VIII. of France.

As soon as the French army entered the Kingdom of Naples the Neapolitans rose in revolt against their king, Alfonso II., a cruel and detested tyrant. Seized with remorse and terror, Alfonso II. abdicated in favor of his son Ferdinand II.; but the new king's virtues were unable to retrieve his family's desperate fortunes. His infantry threw down their arms at the approach of the French; while one of his principal officers betrayed Capua to King Charles VIII., and the city of Naples rose in revolt. Ferdinand II. burned or sunk most of his fleet, placed his available troops in the fortresses near the city of Naples, and fled to Sicily with fifteen ships. The King of France entered the city of Naples the next day amid the acclamations of the people. The Neapolitan fortresses soon surrendered, and in the course of several weeks the entire Kingdom of Naples had come into the possession of Charles VIII. almost without a blow.

French Oppression in Naples.

The triumphant French king treated the Neapolitans as a conquered people. Instead of rewarding their nobles and generals, whose influence had mainly secured his triumph, he confiscated their hereditary lands and offices to grant them to his own idle followers.

Coalition against Charles VIII. of France.

The first great coalition known in European history was now formed against Charles VIII. by the arts of his former ally, Ludovico Sforza, who had gained all that he had hoped for by the French invasion of Italy, and who was alarmed by the nearness of the Duke of Orleans, the rightful heir of the Visconti to the Duchy of Milan. In March,

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1495, a treaty of alliance was signed at Venice by the envoys of Pope Alexander VI., the Emperor Maximilian I., King Ferdinand the Catholic of Spain, the Venetian Republic and the Duke of Milan. A Spanish army was soon landed in Sicily, and a Venetian fleet appeared on the coast of Apulia.

His Expulsion from Naples.

Charles VIII. made a magnificent entry into Naples, clothed in the robes of an Eastern Emperor, carrying a globe in one hand and a scepter in the other. In the following week he fled from that city, leaving its treasury without money and its fortresses without food or ammunition, and took with him in his march northward an immense baggage-train loaded with treasure. He was encountered by an army of the allies four times as numerous as his own, at Fornovo, in Lombardy, in July, 1495, and was victorious. The French army was saved from defeat and ruin by their rich plunder, which diverted the attention of the enemy, whose disorderly ranks were easily put to flight. Charles VIII. then concluded a new treaty with Ludovico Sforza, who acknowledged himself a vassal of the French king for Genoa, and promised to take no part in the movement of the allies against France.

Battle of Fornovo.

Revolt of Naples against the French.

The French dominion in Naples was short-lived. King Ferdinand of Spain sent an army to assist King Ferdinand II. of Naples, who landed at Reggio within a week after the French king's retreat from Naples. His forces were defeated at Seminara; but the people of the city of Naples, weary of the French, rose in revolt against them and welcomed their lawful sovereign with joyful acclamations. The entire southern coast of Naples declared for Ferdinand II.

French Loss of Naples.

The French king's cousin and viceroy, the Duke of Montpensier, made some efforts to continue hostilities; but, as he received no assistance from France, he was obliged to conclude a treaty in which the French obtained little more than permission to return home. While waiting for transports a pestilence broke out, in which the viceroy and many of his troops perished. The Constable d' Aubigny was defeated in Calabria about the same time, by Gonsalvo de Cordova, the *Great Captain*, so called because of his career of uninterrupted victories. Ferdinand II. died in 1496, and was succeeded by his uncle Don Frederick, a prince of great talents and popular disposition, who soon wiped out every remaining vestige of French domination.

Victories of Gonsalvo de Cordova, the Great Captain.

Effects of the French Invasion of Italy.

The principal result of the wild expedition of Charles VIII. into Italy was the fatal desire for distant conquests which it excited in the sovereigns and people who had become involved in his wars; and unfortunate Italy, weakened by her own dissensions, suffered for many years from the display of her wealth and helplessness. To the refined and enervated Italians the invasion of the French seemed like a new inroad of Northern barbarians; as the carnage wrought by the well-served

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artillery of Charles VIII. presented a destructive contrast to the Italian battles of the time, in which "the worst that a soldier had to fear was the loss of his horse or the expense of his ransom."

Bloodless Battles.

During the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries the manufacture of defensive armor so far excelled that of destructive weapons that war became almost as safe as the peaceful contests of the chess-board. War was carried on in Italy mainly by mercenary companies of adventurers, who were hired out by their captains to any prince or city that offered the most pay or plunder; and it was the evident policy of the leaders to keep their forces undiminished, as the material for subsequent bargains. Macchiavelli mentions a decisive battle in which no man suffered any injury, and another in which one was killed by accidentally falling from his horse and being smothered in the mud.

Royal Intermarriages.

Several marriages negotiated by Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain about this time had a controlling influence upon future history. The Princess Margaret, daughter of the Emperor Maximilian I. and the discarded bride of Charles VIII. of Frence, was married to John, Prince of Asturias, the eldest son of the King and Queen of Spain; while her brother Philip, the heir to the Netherlands, married Joanna, the second daughter of the same king and queen. The Princess Isabella, the eldest daughter of King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella, was espoused to King Manuel the Great of Portugal; and the Princess Catharine, the youngest daughter of the Spanish sovereigns, was betrothed to Prince Henry, the heir to the English crown, afterward King Henry VIII. By the premature deaths of the Infant of Spain, the Queen of Portugal and her only son, the whole Spanish inheritance fell to Charles, the eldest son of Philip and Joanna, who ranks as the great central figure in the history of the first half of the sixteenth century.

Martyrdom of Savonarola.

The crimes and vices of the Borgia family gave resolute energy to the preaching of Savonarola, who earnestly called upon the European sovereigns to convene a council of the Church to depose Pope Alexander VI. The Pope replied by excommunicating the "bold prophet of Florence" and all the members of his government. The fanaticism of the *Piagnoni*, or Weepers, who followed Savonarola, had strengthened two other parties in Florence; and Pope Alexander VI. took advantage of the dissensions of these parties to cause his bold antagonist to be put to death. Savonarola and two of his disciples were burned to death in the market-place of Florence, May 23, 1498.

Pope Alexander VI. and His Crimes.

But Pope Alexander VI. did not escape the natural result of his crimes. His eldest son, the Duke of Gandia, had already been murdered by Cæsar Borgia, his own brother, who was Cardinal of Valencia. For several days even the Pope was struck with remorse. He openly confessed his sins and promised to reform, but he soon plunged more

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deeply than ever into violent and degrading courses. He pardoned the murderer, and even released him from his vow as a prelate for the purpose of making him a great secular prince.

Invasion of Italy by Louis XII. of France.

Charles VIII. of France was suddenly hurried to his grave while preparing for another invasion of Italy, A. D. 1498. Louis XII., the next King of France, proceeded to enforce his hereditary claim on Milan; and in 1499 a French army of twenty-three thousand men was sent into Italy under three experienced commanders. Venice was in alliance with the King of France. The success of this expedition was as sudden as that of Charles VIII. against Naples had been. The Milanese were disaffected toward their duke, who was in such fear of popular violence that he fled into the Tyrol to solicit the assistance of the Emperor Maximilian I. While the duke was absent from Milan the Milanese declared for the French, and their example was followed by all Lombardy, which was annexed to the French dominions without a battle having been fought.

His Conquest of Milan.

Louis XII. crossed the Alps into Italy and entered Milan in triumph. He pleased the Lombards with fair promises of a mild, paternal government; but no sooner had he returned to France than the extortions of Trivulzio, his lieutenant, and the rudeness of his soldiery, exasperated the Milanese and revived the party of the exiled duke. Ludovico Sforza now approached with an army he had raised in Switzerland, and the French retreated to Mortara.

Battle of Novara.

In April, 1500, the two armies encountered each other near Novara; but the infantry on both sides was Swiss—that in the French army obtained by treaty with the Swiss government, and that in Sforza's force enlisted man by man. Sforza's recruits had received orders from the Swiss Diet not to fight their countrymen in the French army; and as soon as the battle of Novara began they retreated into the town, where they commenced a secret agreement with the French, promising to desert the Duke of Milan and to return to their homes, on condition of a safe-conduct, which was readily granted.

Captivity of Ludovico Sforza.

One private soldier betrayed Sforza as he was trying to pass out of the ranks of his perfidious Swiss in the disguise of a monk. He was conveyed a captive to France, and passed the remainder of his life in a dungeon. In spite of the perfidious crimes which condemn him, Ludovico Sforza had been a wise and beneficent sovereign in many respects.

His Wise Rule.

The great plain of Lombardy to this day is indebted for much of its productiveness to the canal by which he completed its system of irrigation. Leonardo da Vinci, the greatest artist of the time, selected Sforza for his patron and friend, and contributed much to the splendor of the Milanese court by his genius and greatness as a painter, sculptor and poet.

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French and Spanish Seizure of Naples.

By a counter-revolution the King of France now again came into possession of the Milanese duchy, and opened the way for his march upon Naples. King Ferdinand of Spain—the cousin and natural ally of King Frederick of Naples—had secretly turned against him, and entered into a treaty with Louis XII. to divide the Kingdom of Naples and Sicily between them. Under the pretense of a crusade against the Turks, which was duly proclaimed by the infamous Pope Alexander VI., Ferdinand of Spain had a fleet and an army ready in the ports of Sicily before the French had arrived. The Spanish king kept possession of several towns and fortresses which his cousin had entrusted to him as a friend and ally.

End of the House of Aragon in Naples.

When Frederick became aware of the disgraceful plot he abandoned Naples and Sicily rather than to subject his people to a useless war, and surrendered himself to Stuart d' Aubigny, who conveyed him a captive to France. The military renown of Gonsalvo de Cordova, the Great Captain, is sullied by his obedience to a faithless monarch. By a false oath, that great general obtained possession of King Frederick's son and heir, and sent him a prisoner to Spain. Thus ended the Neopolitan branch of the House of Aragon, which had reigned over Naples and Sicily sixty-five years.

Franco-Spanish Quarrel.

The perfidious conquerors of Naples and Sicily quarreled about the division of the spoils. The French gradually became masters of the entire kingdom, excepting Barletta and several towns on the south-western coast; but the Spaniards again came into possession by a new fraud. The Archduke Philip, on returning from Spain to the Netherlands, was commissioned to conclude a treaty with Louis XII. of France at Lyons. By that treaty it was agreed that the Kings of France and Spain should confer the Kingdom of Naples and Sicily upon two children, Charles of Austria and Claude of France, who were to be married when they became of age.

Spanish Conquest of Naples.

In the meantime Philip was to be regent for his infant son and to rule at Naples, jointly with a commissioner appointed by the King of France. Relying on this treaty, Louis XII. had ordered his commanders in Italy to suspend hostilities; but Ferdinand of Spain had resolved not to be bound by the treaty, and sent secret orders to his Great Captain, who by a sudden and rapid movement surprised the French in their inaction. By their victories in the two decisive battles of Seminara and Cerignola, the Spaniards secured possession of the Kingdom of Naples and Sicily. The city of Naples and most of the other towns of the kingdom opened their gates to Gonsalvo de Cordova, and the last Frenchman had retired from the Neapolitan kingdom within three months, thus giving the Spaniards full and complete possession of that kingdom.

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Crimes of Pope Alexander VI.

Taking advantage of the French invasion of Italy, the Borgias conquered many small sovereignties in Central Italy by force or fraud, and they intended to form a new and powerful "Kingdom of Romagna" from these conquered sovereignties. But Pope Alexander VI. was destined to perish by his own wicked devices. Most of the forty-three cardinals whom he appointed bought their dignities with vast sums of gold; but after they had become enriched by employments in the Church the wicked Pope caused many of them to be poisoned, so that the papal coffers might again be replenished by the confiscation of their estates and the sale of their high offices.

Accidental Poisoning of Pope Alexander VI.

The Pope designed such a fate for the Cardinal of Corneto, whom he invited with Cæsar Borgia, the Pope's son, to the Belvedere, a favorite retreat of the Pope near the Vatican. The Pope had instructed one of his servants to serve the visiting cardinal with poisoned wine. The bottles were interchanged by mistake, and Pope Alexander VI. and his son partook of the poisoned wine, as well as their unsuspecting victim. The more vigorous constitutions of Cæsar Borgia and the Cardinal of Corneto conquered the violent illness with which the poisoned wine attacked them; but the aged Pope, then in his seventy-third year, died within a week, A. D. 1503.

Cardinal d'Amboise and Pope Pius III.

The Cardinal d' Amboise, the famous prime minister of Louis XII. of France, now proved the worthlessness of the friendship purchased with worldly favors. While marching to Naples, a French army halted near Rome, to influence the election of a new Pope; but, as the Cardinal d' Amboise perceived that the election would nevertheless be against him, he gave the votes of his party to the Cardinal of Siena, who thus became Pope Pius III. The new Pope was a good old man, but his election was mainly owing to a mortal disease with which he was already prostrated, and which terminated fatally in less than a month, A. D. 1503. He had during his brief pontificate planned a general council for the reform of the Church.

Pope Julius II.

The next papal election was still more fatal to the ambition of Cardinal d' Amboise. The votes of the conclave were given to Cardinal Julian della Rovera, an active and powerful man, who thus became Pope Julius II. This warlike pontiff's reign was absorbed by two objects—the expulsion of the French from Italy, and the recovery of the alienated estates of the Church. His attention failed to be attracted by the spiritual dangers which menaced the papal supremacy more and more. He soon deprived Cæsar Borgia of his ill-gotten possessions, and immured him in the same tower in Rome where he had incarcerated many prisoners. When Borgia was released he availed himself of the safe-conduct given him by Gonsalvo de Cordova, and proceeded to Naples, where he was betrayed by that great Spanish general to King Ferdi-

Misfortunes, Captivities and Death of Cæsar Borgia.

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nand, who confined him in a Spanish prison for three years. He made his escape therefrom, and perished in one of the civil wars of Navarre.

Expeditions of Louis XII. of France.

Indignant at the ill-faith of King Ferdinand of Spain and his Great Captain, Louis XII. of France hastily fitted out three expeditions—one against Naples and two against Spain. The expedition against Naples was delayed by the ambitious designs of Cardinal d' Amboise, until all its efforts were rendered futile by the lateness of the season. The valley of Garigliano had been converted into a noisome swamp by heavy rains. Hundreds of French soldiers died of malaria; but the Spanish army under Gonsalvo de Cordova, better posted and more thoroughly fed and equipped, was able to profit by the misfortunes of the French. The battle of Garigliano, December 29, 1503, in which the French were utterly routed, completed the conquest of Naples by the Spaniards. The two French expeditions against Spain met with no better success, and the deposed and captive King Frederick of Naples and Sicily negotiated a treaty of peace between France and Spain.

Battle of Garigliano.

Death of Queen Isabella of Spain.

The good Queen Isabella of Spain died in 1504, overwhelmed with grief for the losses of her family, and especially for the insanity of her daughter Joanna, the wife of Philip of Austria. King Ferdinand became regent of Castile, in his daughter's absence, though he caused Philip and Joanna to be proclaimed sovereigns of Castile. Encouraged by a party among the Castilian nobles opposed to Ferdinand, Philip wrote a discourteous letter to his father-in-law, demanding that he retire into his own kingdom of Aragon. Ferdinand replied by inviting Philip to Spain; but he sought revenge by entering into a close alliance with Louis XII. of France, and marrying Germaine de Foix, the French king's niece, who received the French claims upon the Kingdom of Naples as her dowry.

Ferdinand, Philip and Joanna.

Philip's Treaty with Henry VII. of England.

Philip and Joanna sailed for Spain early in 1506; but their Netherland fleet was dispersed by a storm, and they were obliged to take refuge in an English port. Henry VII. of England took advantage of their misfortune to extort a commercial treaty from Philip, favoring England at the expense of the Netherlands, and promising the close alliance of their families by two marriages, which, however, never occurred.

Philip's Death.

After being detained in England several months Philip and Joanna were allowed to proceed to Spain, where they received the allegiance of the Castilian Cortes. Ferdinand resigned all authority in Castile, retaining only the West Indian revenues and the grand-masterships of the three military orders, which Isabella's will secured to him, and sailed with his new queen for Italy. Before he arrived at Naples he was informed of Philip's sudden death. But Ferdinand was willing to have his absence regretted by the ungrateful Spaniards, who were overwhelmed with confusion and alarm by the unexpected event. Ferdi-

Ferdinand's Action.

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nand proceeded to regulate the affairs of his Neapolitan kingdom at leisure, and did not return to Spain until the summer of 1507.

Joanna's Insanity.

The unfortunate Joanna's mental malady was aggravated by excessive grief for her husband's sudden death. She submitted herself entirely to her father's control, and never consented to take any part in public affairs during the remaining forty-seven years of her life. Her son Charles remained in the Netherlands, under the guardianship of his paternal grandfather, the German Emperor Maximilian I. Maximilian's daughter Margaret, who was then a widow for the second time, was appointed regent for the Netherlands. Her skillful diplomacy led to the *League of Cambray*, which she negotiated with the Cardinal d' Amboise, the great French prime minister, and which was signed in the cathedral of Cambray, December 10, 1508; thus uniting King Ferdinand of Spain, King Louis XII. of France, the Emperor Maximilian I. and Pope Julius II. in a coalition against the powerful Venetian Republic.

Her Son Charles.

League of Cambray against Venice.

Claims of Louis XII and Pope Julius II.

The wealth and power of Venice, which had recently been confirmed by the capture of several Greek islands from the Ottoman Turks, excited the fears and the jealousy of her neighbors. Louis XII. of France, as Duke of Milan, desired to reclaim several Lombard towns which had been secured to Venice by treaty during his wars with Ludovico Sforza. Pope Julius II. insisted upon the grants of Pepin the Little and Charlemagne, securing Rimini, Faenza and some other towns to the dominion of St. Peter.

Claims of Ferdinand of Spain and Others.

Ferdinand of Spain desired the possession of Brindisi and other maritime cities which his cousin and predecessor, King Frederick of Naples, had pledged to Venice as security for the expenses of the Venetian Republic in his cause. Padua, Vicenza and Verona were claimed as belonging to the Germano-Roman Empire by ancient right. Roveredo, Treviso and Friuli were claimed as belonging to the Austrian House of Hapsburg. The Duke of Savoy, as lineal descendant of Guy of Lusignan, the King of Jerusalem before the Third Crusade, claimed the isle of Cyprus, which had been bequeathed to Venice by Catharine Cornaro, the widow of the last reigning sovereign of the island. The King of Hungary desired to reannex the lands which Venice had conquered in Dalmatia and Slavonia.

Perfidy of Louis XII. and Ferdinand.

Florence was induced to join the League of Cambray by an act of the basest perfidy on the part of Kings Ferdinand of Spain and Louis XII. of France. Ever since the expedition of Charles VIII. of France into Italy, Pisa, which had previously been the unwilling subject of Florence, had been bravely struggling for independence. Maximilian I., as Emperor, and therefore as nominal sovereign of Italy, had been implored to espouse the cause of Pisa; but his movements were delayed

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so long that "succor for Pisa" had become a proverb and a by-word in Germany.

Florentine Occupation of Pisa.

The Kings of France and Spain now agreed to put a garrison in Pisa, which would be readily received as friendly, but which should be instructed to open the gates of the city to the Florentine army at an appointed time. Louis XII. was to receive one hundred thousand ducats, and Ferdinand fifty thousand, for this act of royal treachery. The troops of Florence entered the half-starved city of Pisa, June 8, 1509, and, by a liberal distribution of food, exhibited greater generosity than their allies.

Hypocrisy of the League of Cambray.

The League of Cambray was the first great European coalition since the Crusades; and it laid the foundation of public law by raising the question whether ancient and hereditary right, the faith of treaties or general considerations of the common good shall have precedence in controlling the affairs of nations. The text of the treaty is strongly tinged with the hypocrisy of the time; as it declares the principal object of the alliance to be a war against the Ottoman Turks, and that, as a preliminary to such a war, it was necessary to put an end to the rapine, the losses and the injuries caused by the insatiable cupidity and the thirst for domination which were characteristic of the Venetian Republic. Venice was really the strongest barrier of Europe against the Turks, and was best able by her maritime power to oppose them in the seat of their dominion.

Battle of Agnadello.

Pope Julius II. began hostilities by a decree of excommunication against the Venetians, expressed in the bitterest terms of reproach. Louis XII. was the first to take the field; and, by a victory which he won over the Venetians at Agnadello in 1509, he gained more than had been assigned to him by the Treaty of Cambray, as he was able to send the keys of Verona, Vicenza and Padua to the Emperor Maximilian I.

Venice Frees Her Italian Dependencies.

Reduced to desperate straits by the number and strength of their enemies, the Venetians adopted the masterly plan of freeing all their Italian dependencies, thus throwing upon the subject cities the burden of their own defense, and narrowing the frontiers of the Venetian Republic to the islands at the head of the Adriatic which had been the Republic's original territories. They also surrendered to Ferdinand of Spain the towns which he had demanded in Apulia, and made dutiful professions of submission to the Emperor and the Pope.

Venetian Occupation and Defense of Padua.

The barbarities which the French and the Germans committed aroused the peasantry of all North-eastern Italy to espouse the cause of Venice. A Venetian force retook and garrisoned Padua. Maximilian I. besieged that town with an army of forty thousand men, but was finally forced to retire and to disband his army, after which the Venetians recovered many cities.

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Pope Julius II. and the French.

Pope Julius II. had now gained all that he desired for the territories of the Church, and he turned his attention to the expulsion of the French from Italy. He relieved Venice from the interdict, and concluded an alliance with the Swiss Republic, which had quarreled with the King of France, and which now agreed to furnish more than six thousand of their best halberdiers to the Pope's service.

Julius II., Ferdinand and the Duke of Ferrara.

The Pope propitiated the King of Spain by the feudal investiture of the Kingdom of Naples, and commuted the tribute formerly received from that realm into an annual offering of a white horse and an aid of three hundred lances in case of an actual invasion of the States of the Church. The Duke of Ferrara had incurred the Pope's wrath by yielding in everything to the counsels of the King of France, and the ambassadors of France and Ferrara were at once dismissed from the papal court.

French and German Cruelty at Vicenza.

The allied French and German armies were still prosecuting hostilities in Northern Italy in the most cruel manner. Vicenza had speedily returned to its alliance with Venice after the repulse of the Emperor Maximilian's army at Padua, and was now exposed to the vengeance of the Germans. All its inhabitants who were able to do so removed their families and their property to Padua, but the remainder took refuge with the peasantry in a vast cavern in the mountains near the city. The French soldiery filled the entrance to the cave with light wood, to which they set fire, thus smothering all who were in the cave, six thousand in number.

Pope Julius II. and His Swiss Allies.

Just when the two fortified towns of Porto Legnano and Monselice had yielded to the allied French and German armies, the scale was turned against the Germans by the Pope's declaration of war against the Duke of Ferrara, and by a simultaneous attack by his Roman and Swiss forces upon Genoa and Milan. The Venetians promptly took advantage of the changed situation, and recovered Vicenza and many other towns; but the papal officers failed to excite a revolt in Genoa against the French; and the Swiss who had entered the plain of Lombardy found themselves entrapped among the many rivers and harassed by the movements of their foes, and were thus obliged to retreat hastily to their own country.

Pope Julius II., Louis XII. and Maximilian I.

After the death of the Cardinal d' Amboise the French clergy assembled at Lyons and called upon Pope Julius II. to lay down weapons so inconsistent with his spiritual dignity and to submit his complaints to a general council of the Church. A new treaty signed at Blois between King Louis XII. of France and the Emperor Maximilian I. provided for the sending of French troops into the field.

Pope Julius II. was enraged by these movements of his enemies, and pushed his warlike operations with increased vigor. He was almost

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taken prisoner by the French at Bologna, while prostrated by a dangerous illness; but he contrived to occupy their general by negotiations until a Venetian army, including a detachment of Turkish cavalry, arrived. The fiery old pontiff laid siege to the fortresses of Concordia and Mirandola amid the snows of a most rigorous winter. Encased in armor, his white hair covered by a steel helmet, he appeared on horseback among his troops, sharing all their hardships and perils, and encouraging them with promises of rich plunder. When the fortress finally surrendered, he entered by a ladder at the breach which his guns had effected, being too impatient to wait for the opening of the gates.

Siege and Capture of Concordia and Mirandola by Pope Julius II.

In a congress which the Emperor Maximilian I. had opened at Bologna the warlike Pope made an unsuccessful effort to detach the Emperor from his alliance with the King of France, and the haughty demeanor of the imperial secretary rendered peace impossible. Being seized with a panic the Pope fled from Bologna; and the French pursued his army, and captured its great standard, twenty-six cannon and an enormous quantity of baggage. The Bolognese received back the Bentivoglios, their former masters, and destroyed the bronze statue of Pope Julius II., which was regarded as one of Michael Angelo's greatest works.

Flight of Julius II. from Bologna.

A new coalition, called the *Holy League*, was now formed against the French by Pope Julius II., King Ferdinand of Spain and the Venetian Republic; while King Henry VIII. of England and the Emperor Maximilian I. were secret parties to the alliance, but did not openly avow their designs until the interests of each could be best secured. The King of England was promised the duchy of Guienne, along with the title of "Most Christian King," which were to be taken from the King of France. The Emperor Maximilian's romantic mind was now occupied with an unusually visionary scheme. The Pope's illness had inspired the Emperor with the idea of taking holy orders and becoming the successor of Julius II. in the Chair of St. Peter, assuming in advance the title of Pontifex Maximus, which the Popes had inherited from the Cæsars.

Holy League against Louis XII. of France.

Pope Julius II. united in his person the genius of a military commander with the ambition of a temporal sovereign; while Louis XII. of France was holding ecclesiastical councils, and the Emperor Maximilian I. in his old age commenced sighing for the dignity of a Pope and the life of a saint. Louis XII., the object of the jealousy of Julius II., was the only one who scrupled to fight against the Pope, and voluntarily relinquished advantages which he had acquired, rather than to do injury to Christ's Vicar on earth; while Henry VIII. of England, who afterward destroyed the papal supremacy in his own realm, was on this occasion won to the Pope's side by the artful flatteries of Julius II.

Julius II., Louis XII., Maximilian I. and Henry VIII.

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Victories of Gaston de Foix, the Thunderbolt of Italy.

The French armies in Italy were under the command of Gaston de Foix, nephew of Louis XII. and brother-in-law of Ferdinand of Spain —a young nobleman of remarkable talents, whose short and brilliant career astonished Europe and acquired for him the title of the *Thunderbolt of Italy*. By a swift and determined movement he threw his army into Bologna, which the allies were then besieging. The forces of the Holy League at once fled; and Gaston de Foix strongly guarded Bologna and then rapidly marched into Lombardy, where he ascertained that two cities had driven away their French garrisons or taken them captive. He defeated the Venetians near Isola della Scala before dawn by the light which the stars reflected from the snow. He took Brescia by storm and gave the city up to plunder and massacre. Bergamo escaped a similar fate by prompt submission and the payment of a ransom.

Battle of Ravenna.

The King of France now ordered his victorious commander to fight one decisive battle, and, if victorious, to march upon Rome, depose Pope Julius II. and dictate terms of peace. In executing this plan, Gaston de Foix marched toward Ravenna, driving the allied army before him. The great battle of Ravenna, which was fought April 11, 1512, has been described as "one of those tremendous days into which human folly and wickedness compress the whole devastation of a famine or a plague."

Victory and Death of Gaston de Foix.

The French general, who claimed the Kingdom of Navarre, and who considered the King of Spain his personal enemy and rival, bared his left arm so that he might bathe it in Spanish blood. The artillery of the Duke of Ferrara, from one end of the crescent-shaped line of the French army, kept up a destructive cross-fire, mowing down entire ranks of the Spanish and papal troops. The French were victorious in the cavalry charge which followed; but the serried ranks of the Swiss, bristling with the points of their long lances, like a Macedonian phalanx, had to sustain a harder struggle with the short swords and the Roman drill of the Spanish infantry. The Swiss columns were only rescued from destruction by the French cavalry, led by the gallant Gaston de Foix himself, who won the victory by the sacrifice of his life. On receiving the fatal tidings, Louis XII. exclaimed: "Would to God that I had lost all Italy, and that Gaston were safe!"

French Triumph and Expulsion from Italy.

In the midst of the panic of the allies all Romagna fell into the power of the victorious French. Rome trembled, and the iron-hearted Pope Julius II. was ready to accept the French king's conditions of peace. But in a few weeks the entire situation was changed. The French soldiery were dispirited by the death of their gallant commander. The German lancers were withdrawn, and the Duke of Ferrara negotiated a separate peace with the Pope. The council which

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convened at Rome three weeks after the battle of Ravenna opposed the terms of peace offered by France. Pope Julius II., the Emperor Maximilian I. and the Swiss Republic united in making Maximilian Sforza, Ludovico's son, Duke of Milan. The French forces, under La Palisse, fled before the allies to Pavia, and thence, after a sanguinary battle, into their own country. At the close of June, 1512, only three towns and three fortresses in Italy remained in the French king's possession.

Dissolution of the Holy League.

But, after the expulsion of the French from Italy, the Holy League fell to pieces from its own dissensions. Pope Julius II., who was resolved upon enlarging the States of the Church to their former limits, wrested the cities of Parma and Piacenza from the new Duke of Milan, and sent his nephew to occupy the Duchy of Ferrara, while he kept the now pardoned and reconciled Alfonso a prisoner at Rome. The Emperor Maximilian I. sent a German army to prey upon the territories of his new allies, the Venetians; while the Swiss kept possession of the three districts of the Valtelline, Locarno and Chiavenna, and levied forced contributions upon the Milanese and deposed their new duke, Maximilian Sforza.

Cardinal John de Medici and Florence.

The late allies agreed upon the necessity of chastising Florence for her neutrality during their wars, by bestowing power in the Florentine Republic upon the party which was able to pay the highest price. Cardinal John de Medici had been taken prisoner in the battle of Ravenna, but escaped in the confusion during the French retreat from Milan. He was now sent with a Spanish army to revolutionize Florence and to restore the dominion of his family. This force took the suburban village of Prato and subjected it to a brutal massacre and pillage.

Restoration of the Medici in Florence.

The Florentine government, in utter dismay, deposed its chief magistrate, and accepted all the terms of the allies, including the payment of a vast sum of money to the Emperor Maximilian I. and King Ferdinand of Spain, and the restoration of the Medici as private citizens only. Julian de Medici, the youngest son of Lorenzo the Magnificent, entered Florence, followed soon afterward by his brother, the cardinal, who, in a packed assembly of the citizens, procured a thorough reversal of the Republic and the establishment of a narrow oligarchy headed by Julian.

John de Medici becomes Pope Leo X.

Upon the death of Pope Julius II., the next year, A. D. 1513, John de Medici was elected Pope by the conclave of cardinals, with the title of Leo X. Leo X. had derived from his illustrious father and the brilliant freethinkers of the New Academy as much regard for pagan mythology as for the Christian religion, but his mind had been improved by travel and the conversation of the greatest and wisest men of his time. He had an excellent taste in art. His court was celebrated for

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the highest elegance and the most profuse magnificence. He had remarkably charming and amiable manners.

His Italian Policy.

Leo X. differed from his stern and warlike predecessor in governmental principles as much as in manners. He dissolved the Holy League and made peace with France. He pursued his predecessor's policy of expelling all foreigners from Italy, for the purpose of uniting the entire peninsula under the rule of the Medici. His brother Julian was unfitted by his imbecile character for administering the government of a freedom-loving people, and therefore abdicated in favor of his nephew, Lorenzo II., and accepted the office of Captain-General of the Church, which his brother, the Pope, conferred upon him; and thus Florence became the slave of a despotic master.

Spanish Conquest of Navarre.

In the meantime the English army which was to have been transported to the coast of Guienne in Spanish vessels had been landed in Spain by the order of King Ferdinand, who sought to enlist the English commander, the Marquis of Dorset, in his own schemes against the Kingdom of Navarre. The English declined to engage in actual hostilities against Navarre; but their presence as allies of Spain so overawed the Navarrese that the Duke of Alva, the Spanish general, was able to conquer the entire Kingdom of Navarre. That little kingdom was annexed to Spain; while its native sovereigns, who still retained their royal titles, only kept possession of the little principality of Bearn, on the north side of the Pyrenees.

Coalition against France.

In April, 1513, Margaret, regent of the Netherlands, concluded a new treaty at Mechlin between her father the Emperor Maximilian I., Ferdinand of Spain, Henry VIII. of England and Pope Leo X., by which the contracting parties bound themselves to invade France from four different points, while still pursuing their combined hostilities against the French king in Italy.

French Conquest and Loss of Lombardy.

Louis XII. hastened his preparations; and in May, 1513, his generals subdued all of Lombardy, except two towns, by a series of brilliant victories. The Italians, who were by this time equally disgusted with the inefficiency of Maximilian Sforza and the brutality of the Swiss, welcomed the French on every side. But the reaction was as sudden and rapid as the advance. The French were obliged to raise the siege of Novara in consequence of fresh arrivals of Swiss, and were defeated and driven beyond the Alps within a few days.

English Victories over the French and the Scots.

The English army under King Henry VIII. arrived at Calais, and was joined by the Emperor Maximilian I. in the siege of Terouenne; but the English victory in the "Battle of the Spurs," in which the French cavalry fled at the first onset, decided the fate of Terouenne, which surrendered and was destroyed, to the dismay of the Parisians. Several weeks after the Battle of the Spurs, September 9, 1513, King

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James IV. of Scotland, the generous ally of Louis XII. of France, was defeated and slain by an English army under the Earl of Surrey at Flodden Field, in the north-east corner of England.

Swiss Venality.

The invasion of Burgundy by German and Swiss troops in the Emperor Maximilian's pay was defeated by bribery. This was the most disgraceful period in the history of the Swiss Republic, when the brave Swiss mountaineers successively sold themselves to the highest bidders, not content with once exchanging their blood for the gold of their purchasers.

Royal Alliances and Intermarriages.

The eventful year 1513 was signalized by still greater changes. Before it ended, Louis XII. had become reconciled with Pope Leo X., and sought the friendship of the Emperor Maximilian I. and King Ferdinand of Spain, for the purpose of furthering his designs upon Milan. As Anne of Brittany, the consort of Louis XII., died in January, 1514, he became the ally of Maximilian I. by engaging to marry the Emperor's granddaughter, Eleanora of Austria; while his own daughter Renée was affianced to the Archduke Charles, the heir to the sovereignty of Spain and the Netherlands, as the grandson of Ferdinand and Isabella, and of the Emperor Maximilian I. and the Duchess Mary of Burgundy.

Alarm of Pope Leo X.

This projected alliance of families alarmed Pope Leo X. by its threatened union of Austria, France, Spain and the Netherlands into one vast dominion, which would have inevitably destroyed the newly cherished balance of power in Europe. With the support of two English prelates, the Pope arranged a new marriage-treaty, by which Louis XII. espoused Mary, the sister of Henry VIII. of England. This royal wedding occurred at Abbeville, in October, 1514; but the festivities in honor of the marriage proved fatal to the already failing health of Louis XII., who breathed his last on January 1, 1515.

Second Marriage and Death of Louis XII.

Francis I. of France, A. D. 1515–1547.

The Princess Claude, the eldest daughter of Louis XII., was already married to Duke Francis of Angoulême, the representative of the younger branch of the House of Orleans. As Louis XII. left no son, this prince at once became King of France with the title of Francis I.; and the duchy of Brittany, or Bretagne, thenceforth remained a part of the Kingdom of France.

SECTION II.—WARS OF EMPEROR CHARLES V. WITH FRANCIS I. OF FRANCE (A. D. 1515–1547).

Francis I., of France.

Francis I., the new King of France, was twenty-one years of age, gay, brilliant and equally fond of pleasure and military glory. The cares of government in France fell into the hands of his mother, whom

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His Mother.

he made Duchess of Angoulême and Anjou. The queen-mother gathered the ladies of the noblest families around her, and under her auspices the French court first became noted for its elegance and extravagant gayety. The penetrating wit of French women, veiling profound art with consummate grace, has ever since exerted a good or evil influence in the affairs of France.

Chancellor Duprat and Constable de Bourbon.

The Chancellor Duprat and the Constable de Bourbon—both of whom had been raised to their dignities by the queen-mother's favor—acted very conspicuous parts in the history of the reign of Francis I. Pedro Navarro, a famous military engineer, who had long been in the service of King Ferdinand of Spain, having been wronged by that sovereign, entered the armies of France; and from the recruits which he raised among the mountaineers of the Cevennes and the Pyrenees he presented Francis I. with the powerful assistance of regiments organized upon the model of the Spanish infantry.

Pedro Navarro.

Designs on Milan.

The new French king at once assumed the title of Duke of Milan, and prepared to prosecute the claims of his dynasty in Northern Italy. A Swiss army guarded the passes of Mont Cenis and Mont Genèvre—the only western Alpine passes considered practicable—and was stationed in the Italian plain near the exits from the valleys.

French Invasion of Italy.

In this emergency the French forces, numbering sixty-four thousand men, with seventy-two great and three hundred smaller cannon, performed one of the most remarkable transits mentioned in history. Guided by chamois-hunters, the two great French generals, Trivulzio and Lautrec, with the engineer Navarro, pioneered a more southerly route over the Col d' Argentière. This path, which was scarcely passable by the sure foot and the practiced eye of the mountaineer, was prepared by the skill and genius of Navarro for the transportation of heavy artillery. Bridges were placed across from one dizzy height to another. Masses of solid rock were disposed of by charges of gunpowder. Cannon were swung from peak to peak by means of ropes. The French army suddenly surprised the enemy by appearing on the Lombard plain.

French Successes.

A small division of cavalry, which had crossed the Alps by another route never before trodden by horses, had in the meantime surprised Prosper Colonna, the Pope's general, at Villa Franca, with seven hundred of his troops. The main army proceeded by way of Turin, the Swiss retiring before them to Milan and Novara; while a detachment marched southward and recovered Genoa and the entire region south of the Po by a bloodless victory.

Battle of Marignano.

A decisive battle fought at Marignano, about ten miles from Milan, September 14–15, 1515, transferred the Duchy of Milan from Maximilian Sforza to King Francis I. of France. The Swiss, after being

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reinforced by twenty thousand of their countrymen, burst upon the French quarters unexpectedly late in the afternoon. The fierce onset and the furious resistance rendered the result doubtful, and at midnight the exhausted combatants took a rest until daybreak. The French king slept on a gun-carriage, and rallied his troops at dawn with sound of trumpet. The Swiss retired in good order when a Venetian detachment appeared upon the scene. Francis I. was knighted on the battle-field by the Chevalier Bayard, "the knight without fear and without reproach."

Alliances of Francis I. with the Medici and the Swiss.

Maximilian Sforza retired to France on a pension. Francis I. now entered into a close alliance with the Medici, the oppressors of Florence; thus sacrificing most of the advantages of his great victory at Marignano, and allowing himself to be persuaded by Pope Leo X. to postpone his attack upon Naples until the death of its sovereign, King Ferdinand of Spain. The French king made a treaty of peace and alliance with the Swiss at Geneva, thus gaining the important right to levy troops in Switzerland. He then disbanded most of his army, and appointed the Constable de Bourbon his viceroy in Milan, after which he retired into France.

Coalition against Francis I.

Before the French king had left Italy, Pope Leo X. was conspiring with the Emperor Maximilian I., and with Kings Henry VIII. of England and Ferdinand of Spain, to invest Francisco Sforza with the Duchy of Milan, notwithstanding the fact that the Pope's recognition of the title of Francis I. to that duchy had been almost the only article in the Treaty of Bologna that favored the French king. But the coalition against Francis I. was disconcerted by the sudden death of King Ferdinand of Spain, in January, 1516.

Death of Ferdinand of Spain.

Perfidious Character of King Ferdinand of Spain.

The friends and enemies of Ferdinand expressed their various estimates of his character in his titles. "Spain called him the Wise; Italy, the Pious; France and England, the Perfidious." We cannot help regarding the last of these epithets deserved when we are reminded of his ingratitude toward Columbus and Gonsalvo de Cordova, or the base deception by which he deprived his cousin Frederick of the crown of Naples. But he was the most successful sovereign of his time, and even his avarice and duplicity laid the foundation for the ascendency of Spain during the sixteenth century, while his bigoted and intolerant policy introduced the elements of her sudden and fatal decline.

Spain's Ascendency.

Maximilian's Invasion of Lombardy.

The Emperor Maximilian I. fulfilled his part of the treaty by invading Lombardy in March, 1516, with a large force of German, Swiss and Spanish troops. The French general, Lautrec, was obliged to retire to Milan; while the other French commander, the Constable de Bourbon, burned the surrounding villages, for the purpose of depriving the enemy of all shelter.

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The Swiss Soldiers in the French and German Armies.

Thirteen thousand Swiss in the French army refused to fight their countrymen in the Emperor Maximilian's army, which was now approaching; and the Constable de Bourbon was reluctantly obliged to dismiss them. But the Emperor's good fortune deserted him when it seemed within his grasp. His coffers were empty and his troops unpaid, as usual; and the Swiss colonel entered his bed-chamber one morning and bluntly told him that he would lead his followers over to the service of the French if their pay was not forthcoming.

Disbanding of Maximilian's Army.

Maximilian then left his army and made a hasty journey to Trent under pretense of collecting money; but he failed to return, whereupon his army disbanded, and its dispersed companies consoled themselves for their arrears of pay by pillaging several unoffending towns. The menacing war-cloud disappeared; and Maximilian I., conscious of the ridicule which he had incurred, never again led an army into the field.

King Charles I. of Spain, A. D. 1516–1556.

Upon the death of King Ferdinand of Spain, in January, 1516, his celebrated prime-minister, Cardinal Ximenes, proclaimed his grandson, the Archduke Charles of Austria, as King of Spain, at Madrid, which had recently become the capital of Spain. Thus the Archduke Charles, who was also the grandson of the Emperor Maximilian I., and lord of the Netherlands, became CHARLES I. of Spain.

Ximenes and the Navarrese.

The Navarrese made an unsuccessful effort to restore the House of Albret; and Cardinal Ximenes wreaked a terrible vengeance upon the conquered kingdom, destroying its towns, villages and castles, two thousand in number, reserving only Pampeluna and a few places on the Ebro as military posts from which he might hold the Navarrese in awe.

Kings Charles I. and Francis I.

The exposed situation of Navarre and the Netherlands induced King Charles I. of Spain to cultivate the friendship of King Francis I. of France. By the Treaty of Noyon, Charles agreed to marry the infant daughter of Francis I., who was to have all her father's claims to Naples as her dowry; and already the Spanish monarch addressed the French sovereign, who was scarcely older than himself, as "My good father."

Peace of Brussels.

The Peace of Brussels, in December, 1516, closed the wars arising from the League of Cambray and the Holy League. In the fall of 1517 King Charles I. visited his Spanish kingdom for the first time since his accession to the Spanish throne, and the cloud which rested upon the mind of Queen Joanna was dispelled for a moment by the unexpected meeting. But the Spaniards were disgusted with the insolent rapacity of the Flemish courtiers who accompanied their new king and absorbed his confidence. A constant stream of gold flowed from Spain into the Netherlands, drawn from the Spanish offices and pensions.

King Charles I. and His Flemish Court.

The aged minister, Cardinal Ximenes, from his sick-bed addressed a letter to King Charles I., soliciting a personal interview. The Flem-

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Dismissal and Death of Cardinal Ximenes.

ings feared the great minister's influence, and persuaded the king to reply in terms which veiled the coolest and basest ingratitude under the forms of courtesy, dismissing Ximenes from all his offices except that of bishop. This ungrateful treatment from a sovereign whom Ximenes had served so well and faithfully brought on a relapse of the fever which had already conquered the great minister's iron frame; and he died at the age of eighty, with his last breath commending his university at Alcala to the king's favor.

His Polyglot Edition of the Bible.

Cardinal Ximenes rendered his name illustrious by his Polyglot edition of the Bible—the greatest literary work of his time, and one of the greatest glories of the University of Alcala. This work was the production of nine scholars, deeply learned in the ancient languages, and sustained by the patronage and guided by the counsel of Ximenes. The Old Testament contained the original Hebrew, with Chaldaic, Greek and Latin versions. The New Testament contained the Greek and Vulgate versions. The type was cast at Alcala under the eye of Ximenes, as none yet existed in the Oriental character. The most ancient Hebrew texts were discovered among the confiscated property of the exiled Jews.

His Abilities and Character.

Besides his zeal for learning and his great ability as a statesman, Cardinal Ximenes possessed military talents. In 1509 he undertook to chastise the Moors of Africa for their depredations on the coast of Spain. He himself captured Oran by storm, and in pursuance of his plans several important Moorish fortresses became permanent possessions of Spain. The darkest side of his character belongs more properly to the age in which he lived. During his eleven years' presidency of the Inquisition, he "permitted," in the language of Llorente, two thousand five hundred and thirty-six persons to be burned to death, while fifty-one thousand one hundred and sixty-seven endured less severe punishments.

King Charles I. and the Castilians.

The Chancellorship of Spain, thus made vacant by the death of Cardinal Ximenes, was conferred upon a Fleming; and his Primacy was bestowed upon another Fleming. The Castilian cities, which had been early given a voice in national affairs, now united in defense of their rights and addressed a petition to King Charles I., complaining of the illegal appointment of foreigners to high offices in Spain, and also of the increase of taxes and the exportation of coin. The king paid no attention to their complaints, but the Junta afterward threatened to overthrow the monarchy in Spain.

Charles I. of Spain becomes Emperor Charles V.

Upon the death of the Emperor Maximilian I., in 1519, three kings became candidates for the imperial throne—Charles I. of Spain, Francis I. of France and Henry VIII. of England. The seven Electors of the German Empire chose the King of Spain, who thus became Emperor

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with the title of CHARLES V. As Maximilian's grandson and as Archduke of Austria and lord of the Netherlands, Charles had the best claim to the imperial dignity. Conscious of the vast powers they were bestowing, the seven Electors required Charles V. to give a solemn guarantee of all their privileges; and the Elector-Palatine, with the Archbishops of Mayence, Trèves and Cologne, formed the *Electoral Union of the Rhine* for common defense.

His Vast Dominions.

The Emperor Charles V. was the most powerful monarch that had reigned in Christendom since the time of Charlemagne, and his dominions were far more extensive than those of Alexander the Great or those of Augustus Cæsar. As we have seen, while yet a youth he was lord of the rich and flourishing Netherlands, which he inherited from his father Philip, the son of the Emperor Maximilian I. and the Duchess Mary of Burgundy. As we have also seen, on the death of his maternal grandfather, King Ferdinand of Spain, in 1516, he obtained the crown of Spain, with Naples, Sicily, Sardinia and the Spanish possessions in America; inheriting these through his mother Joanna, the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella. And lastly, as we have just noticed, on the death of his paternal grandfather, the Emperor Maximilian I., in 1519, he succeeded by inheritance to the hereditary Austrian territories, and by election to the imperial throne of Germany. His Spanish dominions were enlarged by the conquest of Mexico by Cortez in 1521, and by the conquest of Peru by Pizarro in 1532. He soon bestowed his hereditary Austrian estates on his brother Ferdinand, who, as we shall presently see, added the Kingdom of Bohemia and a large part of Hungary to the possessions of the House of Hapsburg, A. D. 1526.

His Accession to the Imperial Throne of Germany.

Charles V., having been born in 1500, was therefore only nineteen years of age when he became the leading prince of Christendom upon his election to the imperial throne in 1519. At this early age he gave but little promise of the commanding character by which he was subsequently distinguished. He was sluggish in mind and weak in body; but his motto "*Non Dum*" (Not Yet), which he assumed at his first tournament, expressed some consciousness of unawakened power. His Spanish subjects were extremely offended by his acceptance of the imperial crown; and the Spanish Cortes very reluctantly voted him a grant of money, to enable him to make a suitable appearance in his new dignity.

His Rivalry with Francis I. of France.

Francis I. was deeply offended by the election of Charles V. to the imperial throne, and became his rival and enemy. Four wars arose between the two monarchs, caused by the conflicting claims of each to the possession of Milan, Naples, Navarre and Burgundy. Charles V. demanded the restitution of Burgundy, which had been confiscated from

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his grandmother, the Duchess Mary, by Louis XI. of France. He inherited the right of the Hohenstaufen and Aragonian dynasties to the Kingdom of Naples, while Francis I. represented the House of Anjou. As Emperor, Charles V. became sovereign of the imperial fiefs in Italy, including the Duchy of Milan, which Francis I. claimed as head of the House of Orleans. All these rival claims of Charles V. and Francis I. afforded so many pretexts for indulging their mutual ambition and jealousy.

His Alliance with Henry VIII. of England.

Charles V. and Francis I. each wished to secure the favor of the vain and capricious Henry VIII., who had ascended the throne of England upon the death of his father, Henry VII., in 1509, and who was, like themselves, a candidate for the imperial throne. On his way to Germany, after his election to the imperial throne, Charles V. visited Henry VIII. in England, for the purpose of diverting him from any alliance with Francis I. The Emperor won the English king's favor by gifts and promises to his celebrated Prime Minister, Cardinal Wolsey, while Henry VIII. was already opposed to Francis I. by his desire to renew the conquests of Henry V. in France.

Interviews of Henry VIII. with Francis I. and Charles V.

Henry VIII. nevertheless proceeded to that celebrated interview with Francis I. at Calais, during the splendid festival of two weeks in June, 1520, known as the *Field of the Cloth of Gold*, because of the magnificence displayed on that occasion. In reading aloud his state-paper, prepared for the occasion, Henry VIII. is even said to have dropped his own customary title of "King of France." The Emperor Charles V. waited at Gravelines for the meeting of the Kings of England and France to be over; and afterwards passed some days with Henry VIII. at Calais, for the purpose of removing any favorable impression which the French king might have made upon him.

Coronation of Charles V.

Charles V. was crowned as Emperor-Elect at Aix la Chapelle, in October, 1520; and in January following he held his first Diet at Worms, where events of the most momentous importance were transacted, which will be fully related in the next section.

Four Wars of Charles V. with Francis I.

In the meantime, during the progress of the Reformation in Germany, the Emperor Charles V. was engaged in four wars with King Francis I. of France—the first of that long series of wars between Austria and France that lasted with but brief intervals of peace for almost two centuries (A. D. 1520–1714). The first of these four wars began in 1520 and lasted six years.

First War.

French Conquest of Navarre.

The war began on the side of Navarre, which little kingdom was invaded by a French army under Andrew de Foix, a relative of the deposed King of Navarre, who quickly and easily effected the conquest of the kingdom, as almost all of its fortresses had been destroyed. He then sought to join the insurgents in Spain, who had secured control of

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the imbecile Queen Joanna, and who in her name endeavored to expel the regent appointed by Charles V.

Castilian Bill of Rights.

The Castilian Junta demanded that Charles V. should reside in Spain, not in Germany or the Netherlands; that he should appoint no foreigner to any civil or ecclesiastical office in Spain, and that he should convene the Cortes once in three years. The independence of the Cortes was guarded by a rule that none of its members should receive any place or pension from the king. Judges were to be maintained by regular salaries, and were forbidden to receive any portion of the fines or forfeitures of persons whom they condemned; while bishops were to reside in their dioceses at least half the year; and indulgences were to be sold in Spain only with the consent of the Cortes, and the proceeds therefrom were to be applied entirely to wars against the Moslems.

Castilian Revolt and Defeat.

Charles V. rejected this bill of rights, whereupon the Castilian Junta appealed to arms; but the insurgent army of twenty thousand men was defeated, and its leader was executed. The king's army prevented a junction of the rebels with the French force under Andrew de Foix; but when this French commander laid siege to a Castilian town even the Castilian insurgents turned against him and drove him into Navarre, where he was defeated, mortally wounded and taken prisoner, dying several days later of his wounds; and the Spaniards rapidly recovered Navarre.

Spanish Recovery of Navarre.

Alliances of Pope Leo X. with Francis I. and Charles V.

By successively allying himself with Charles V. and Francis I., Pope Leo X. obtained the duchy of Urbino and the lordships of Modena, Reggio, Perugia and Fermo. In 1521 he united with the King of France to expel the Spaniards from Southern Italy, which was to be divided between the Pope and the French king's second son. As Francis I. delayed the ratification of this treaty, Pope Leo X. made a counter alliance with the Emperor Charles V. to drive the French from Northern Italy. The Pope allowed the Emperor to seize the territories of Venice in return for promising to extirpate the Lutheran heresy in Germany—an agreement which was signed in the presence of the German Diet, on the same day with the Edict of Worms, issued by the Emperor against Luther and his supporters.

Fruitless Peace Conference at Calais.

Three months afterward a conference was held at Calais between the envoys of the Pope, the Emperor and the Kings of France and England. Henry VIII. had offered his mediation between Francis I. and Charles V.; and his great Prime Minister, Cardinal Wolsey, was courted and flattered by the two rival sovereigns, each of whom desired to gain the English king's favor. The Emperor pledged his vast influence to secure the Papacy to Wolsey at the death of Leo X., having already granted the English Prime Minister an annual pension of ten thousand ducats. The Conference of Calais failed to accomplish anything, as

Promises of Charles V. to Cardinal Wolsey.

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the conflicting claims of the rival monarchs could not be reconciled. Francis I. demanded the two kingdoms of Naples and Navarre; while Charles V. insisted that the King of France should relinquish Milan and Genoa, restore Burgundy and release the Emperor from homage for the Netherlands.

Alliance of Charles V., Henry VIII. and Pope Leo X.

Immediately afterward the Emperor of Germany and the King of England concluded a treaty by which each agreed to invade France with an army of forty thousand men, while the Pope excommunicated the King of France and absolved his subjects from their allegiance. Another treaty was afterward concluded between the Emperor Charles V., King Henry VIII. and Pope Leo X., by which all three agreed to take rigorous proceedings against heretics in their respective dominions; and Leo X. conferred the title of *Defender of the Faith* upon Henry VIII., who had just written a Latin work against Luther and the Reformation.

French Navarre.

The Albrets recovered all that part of Navarre north of the Pyrenees, and ever afterward retained possession of it. In the Netherlands the French took the town and fortress of Hesdin, but lost Tournay.

Lautrec's Misrule in Milan.

In Italy, the principal seat of the war, the able French general Lautrec, a cruel and rapacious tyrant, as viceroy of Milan, enriched himself at the expense of the inhabitants; but the French king soon lost Milan through the dissensions of his court.

Spanish Capture of Milan.

One of the two hostile parties at the French court was led by Louisa of Savoy, the mother of King Francis I.; the other by the Countess of Chateaubriand, the sister of the great general, Lautrec. The twenty thousand Swiss troops in Lautrec's service, discontented for want of pay, either marched home or deserted to the Emperor Charles V. Lautrec was besieged in Milan, and when the Spanish infantry made a night attack upon the Roman gate of the city that gate was opened by the Emperor's partisans in Milan, whereupon Lautrec and his brother fled.

Wickedness of the French King's Mother and Unjust Execution of Semblancai.

Francis I. severely reproached his general for the loss of Milan. Lautrec threw the entire blame on Semblançai, the French Minister of Finance, for having failed to send him money for the payment of his Swiss troops, thus causing them to desert his standard. Semblançai declared that he had paid the money to the king's mother, and offered to produce her receipt therefor; but the wicked Louisa, who had applied the money to her private use, had bribed a clerk in the treasury to steal the receipt; and the venerable Semblançai, respected for his years and his integrity, was sentenced to be executed, being thus sacrificed to screen the queen-mother's crime. The Chancellor Duprat, who was envious of Semblançai's influence over the king, who always called the aged minister "My father," was concerned in this crime. Duprat was then employed to raise money, which he effected by the most illegal and scandal-

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ous methods, alienating the royal domains, selling public offices to the highest bidder, and doubling the already oppressive taxes.

French Losses in Italy.

The fortress of Milan was still held by the French, but almost all the Lombard cities opened their gates to the Emperor's troops. The imperial troops also took Parma and Piacenza, and occupied them for Pope Leo X. according to treaty. Leo X. is said to have died of joy in consequence of these successes, but other accounts say that he was poisoned. He was forty-five years of age at his death, and had reigned eight years (A. D. 1513–1521). The victorious allies were thrown into confusion by this event. The papal army was disbanded for want of funds; and Urbino, Perugia and other places gladly received back their native rulers.

Death of Pope Leo X.

Pope Adrian VI. and His Self-denying Humility.

The next Pope, Adrian VI., who had been regent of Spain, was chosen to the Chair of St. Peter in 1522, after a long and violent contest in the conclave of cardinals. His scholastic education made him a bitter antagonist of Luther, but he was an honest man and deplored the corruptions of the Church. He began his reign with stern efforts at reform, entering Rome barefooted, in scorn of the luxury of his predecessors, and turning with horror from the sculptures which Leo X. had collected in the Vatican, exclaiming: "These are pagan idols!" He kept but one old servant for his household. The elegant courtiers of Leo X. looked on with disgust, which was increased when the new Pope sought to replenish his exhausted finances by abolishing many useless and expensive offices; but the common people of Rome regarded his self-denying humility with enthusiastic reverence.

French Retirement from Italy.

After being again defeated by the Emperor's troops, the French retired from Italy, surrendering all but the three citadels of Milan, Novara and Cremona. The Germans also took Genoa, of which Antoniotto Adorno became Doge.

New Alliance of Charles V. with Henry VIII.

The departure of the regent Adrian from Spain upon his election to the Papacy made it necessary for Charles V. to return to that discontented kingdom. He visited England on his way from Germany to Spain, and renewed his agreement with Cardinal Wolsey by fresh promises, at the same time flattering the English nation by making the Earl of Surrey his admiral and inducing Henry VIII. to declare war against the King of France.

Neutrality of Burgundy Franche-Comte, Lorraine and Savoy.

Francis I. secured his eastern frontier by a treaty with Margaret, the Emperor's regent in the Netherlands, by which he promised not to invade or attack her territory of Franche-Comté for three years. The frequent renewals of this treaty left Burgundy and Franche-Comté in the enjoyment of peace, industry and prosperity for more than a century, while the Austro-French wars were raging around them. The three duchies of Savoy, Lorraine and Bar were likewise neutral terri-

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tories; and these, along with Franche-Comté, thoroughly covered the eastern side of France.

Oppressive Rule of Charles V. in Spain.

For the next eight years (A. D. 1521–1529) Charles V. resided in his Kingdom of Spain, being absent all that time from his Empire of Germany. He won the hearts of his Spanish subjects by his lenity to those who had rebelled during his absence; by adopting the Spanish dress, language and manners, and by excluding all foreigners from civil or ecclesiastical offices. But he strengthened his own power at the expense of the popular liberties, by making the three estates of the Spanish Cortes meet in separate places, thus dividing their strength; by winning individual representatives of the commons to his interest, and by prohibiting all debate except in the presence of a presiding officer appointed by himself.

Suppression of the Cortes.

Cruel Policy of Charles V. toward the Moors in Spain.

Charles's policy toward his Moorish subjects was as unjust as his grandfather Ferdinand's treatment of the Jews. The refined and industrious Moors contributed vastly to the prosperity of Spain, while being allowed toleration for their own religion, but living in obedience to Spanish laws. In 1525 Charles suddenly resolved to force them to accept Christianity, causing their copies of the Koran to be seized and their mosques to be closed, and exiling from Spain all who were not baptized before a specified date, but preventing them from reaching Africa by closing all the Spanish ports against them except Corunna, in the extreme North-west of the kingdom.

Still Harsher Cruelty and Oppression.

Charles afterward issued a harsher edict, confiscating the goods of all Moors who refused to embrace Christianity, and selling them into slavery. This atrocious policy caused a revolt among the Moors, thousands of whom were slain, while a hundred thousand succeeded in escaping to Africa. Those remaining in Spain conformed with reluctance to the Spanish rites, customs and language, but were deprived of all privileges and reduced to the condition of beasts of burden.

French Defeat in Italy.

Pope Adrian VI. formed a powerful coalition against Francis I., whom he held responsible for the failure of Christendom to unite in a crusade against the Ottoman Turks, who had resumed their career of conquest. In 1523 the King of France sent another army into Italy to recover Milan; but his undertaking failed, in a great measure through the conduct of his wicked mother, Louisa of Savoy, whose injustice toward the Constable de Bourbon made that powerful French nobleman the most bitter enemy of the French court, and caused him to enter the service of the Emperor Charles V. against his own king and country.

Defection of the Constable de Bourbon.

His Vast Estates, Honors and Wealth.

The Constable de Bourbon possessed by inheritance and marriage four duchies, four counties, two viscounties, and many smaller lordships in the center of France; and he might even have hoped to inherit the

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French crown itself in case his kinsman, King Francis I., died without sons. His great military services had been rewarded with the highest dignities and revenues, but his cold and haughty temper did not suit the king's jovial disposition, and the court favorites delighted to annoy so powerful a rival.

His Unjust Treatment from the Mother of Francis I.

On the death of the Constable's wife Susanna, the heiress of the elder branch of the House of Bourbon, the king's mother desired to marry him; but the Constable, who utterly detested Louisa's vices, expressed his dislike for her in such strong language that the king was provoked to strike him. Louisa's love for the Constable was thenceforth turned to the most inveterate hatred, and she resolved to ruin him. She put in a claim to all the Bourbon possessions in right of her mother, who represented another branch of the House of Bourbon, and obtained a decision from the Parliament of Paris in her favor, also securing to herself the private revenues of his mother-in-law, Anne.

His Plot with Henry VIII. and Charles V.

Thus deprived of everything and reduced to the verge of ruin, the proud heart of the Constable de Bourbon sought bitter revenge; and in a moment of desperation he opened negotiations with the Emperor Charles V. and with Henry VIII. of England to betray his country into their hands. An arrangement was effected for the partition of France between Charles V., King Henry VIII. and the Constable. The hereditary dominions of the Bourbons, with Lyonnois, Dauphiny and Provence, were to be erected into an independent sovereignty for the Constable himself.

Allied Invasion of France.

The plot seemed about to succeed. The English army landed at Calais, and was joined by an imperial force from the Netherlands, after which the united forces marched to within thirty-three miles from Paris.

Constable de Bourbon in the German Service.

But the invasions of France on the sides of Germany and Spain failed, and the French king's discovery of the conspiracy prevented the Constable de Bourbon's vassals and retainers from executing their part in the transaction. The Constable fled into Germany, and was received with open arms by the Emperor Charles V., who entrusted him with the command of his armies.

Pope Clement VII.

In this emergency Pope Adrian VI. died, A. D. 1523; whereupon the Cardinal Giulio de Medici was chosen by the conclave of cardinals, and assumed the title of Clement VII. Thus Cardinal Wolsey was a second time disappointed, and was obliged to content himself with the dignity of papal legate, or nuncio, in England, to which extraordinary powers were attached.

Heroic Death of the Chevalier Bayard.

In the spring of 1524 the Constable de Bourbon entered Italy as the Emperor's Lieutenant-General. The allies forced the incompetent Bonnivet, the commander of the French forces, to retreat into France. In a battle near Romagnano, during this retreat, the Chevalier Bayard,

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1. Plumed hat of the Swiss bands in French service
2. Forked match-holder used for firing cannon
3. View of head-piece from above, showing colors of man-at-arms
4. 10, 11, 12, 20. Bucklers of the Twelfth century
5. Swiss soldier in French service, 1515-1547
6. French knight of the Twelfth century in the hauberk, or long coat-of-mail
7. French knight of late Twelfth century, showing type of armor used in the Third and Fourth Crusades
8. Officer of artillery
9. Sallet — a form of light head-piece
13. English armet — the most complete head-covering
14. Tilting heaume — a large and heavy helmet — Fourteenth century
15. French plumed armet — 1547-1559
16. Heaume of the late Twelfth and early Thirteenth centuries
17. Knight-banneret of the late Thirteenth and early Fourteenth centuries
18. Foot-soldier — 1350-1364
19. Man-at-arms with tilting-lance
21. Foot-soldier with standard
22. Helmet of same, showing elongated visor

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le chevalier sans peur et sans reproche, "the knight without fear and without reproach," was mortally wounded. Unwilling that the retreating army should be delayed by his misfortune, he ordered himself to be placed against a tree with his face toward the enemy. In this condition he was found by the Constable de Bourbon, who lamented that the vicissitudes of war had reduced so noble a knight to such a fate; but the dying chevalier replied: "I am not an object of pity, Sir Duke. I die happy in having performed my duty to my king and country. It is you who deserve pity, who are bearing arms against your native land, forgetting that the death of every traitor is violent, and his memory detested."

His Chivalric Character

This favorite hero of the age was the last model of chivalry that appeared in Europe. Though he held only the rank of captain, he really possessed more influence than any general, from the universal respect and admiration inspired by his high character. He had been taken prisoner by the English in the Battle of the Spurs in 1513. He was the ancestor of the Bayard family which has represented the State of Delaware in the United States Senate at different times for a century.

Bourbon's Invasion of France and His Retreat.

The German imperial army under the Constable de Bourbon and the Marquis Pescara now invaded France by the Cornice Road, captured Aix, Toulon and Frejus, and besieged Marseilles; but on the approach of Francis I. with a powerful army the Constable raised the siege and beat a precipitate retreat into Italy, pursued by the King of France with a well-equipped army of thirty thousand men.

Siege of Pavia by Francis I.

With characteristic imprudence, Francis I. laid siege to the strongly fortified town of Pavia, which was defended by a numerous garrison, under the command of Antonio de Leyva, an able general. The imperial generals, who were the viceroy Lannoy and the Constable de Bourbon, made the greatest efforts to collect a numerous army for the relief of the garrison of Pavia. The inactivity and indiscretion of the French king, who weakened his army by sending detachments against Naples and Savona, operated in favor of the imperialists.

Battle of Pavia.

Bourbon resolved to attack the French in their intrenchments; and on the night of February 23–24, 1525, his army stormed the French camp, while at the same time the garrison of Pavia made a furious sally, thus placing the French between two fires. After a most sanguinary conflict, the French army was almost totally destroyed. Ten thousand brave warriors were either killed in the encounter or drowned in the waters of the Ticino. The chivalrous Francis himself, after a gallant defense, was unhorsed and taken prisoner. He was recognized by an attendant of the Constable de Bourbon, who advised him to surrender. The chivalrous king scornfully refused to become the captive of his

Francis I. a Prisoner.

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traitorous vassal, but called for Lannoy and surrendered his sword to that commander.

Magnitude of this French Disaster.

This was the greatest disaster that the French had suffered since the battle of Poitiers, as their king was a captive, and the flower of their nobility and soldiery was left dead on the sanguinary field. Bonnivet was among the slain, and when the Constable de Bourbon saw his dead body he exclaimed: "Unfortunate man, you have ruined France, yourself and me!" The French army was permitted to retreat into France, and within a fortnight the last French soldier had recrossed the Alps. The captive Francis I. conveyed the sad intelligence of the great catastrophe to his mother in a single line: "Madame, all is lost but honor."

Its Effects.

The battle of Pavia produced joy in Spain, terror in France, jealousy in England and dissatisfaction in Italy. When the news reached Madrid, Charles forbade all public rejoicings, and sought to dissemble his natural exultation over the event. France was stricken with terror, and Paris was guarded as if the triumphant foe was already at its gates. The captive king's mother, who assumed the regency in this perilous crisis, had by her intrigues alienated those who should have been her best supporters.

Constable de Bourbon and the Dukes of Alencon and Vendome.

Of the leading French princes of the blood royal, the Constable de Bourbon was declared a traitor; the Duke d' Alençon, the king's brother-in-law, had disgraced himself by cowardice in the battle of Pavia, and had since died of vexation and chagrin; and the Duke of Vendôme, an enemy to the queen-mother, was suspected of a secret understanding with the traitor Constable, but he silenced all suspicions by generously forgetting his grievances and joining the queen-mother at Lyons.

The Count of Guise and the Parliament of Paris.

The Count of Guise, the founder of a family destined to act an important part in the future history of France, rendered good service by suppressing a peasant revolt which had spread from Germany into the French provinces of Lorraine, Champagne and Burgundy. The Parliament of Paris, which had assembled at once upon the sad tidings of the king's captivity, presented a long list of grievances, and demanded redress as a condition of granting supplies or adopting measures for the public defense. One of their demands was for the extermination of the Lutheran heretics, who were held responsible for all the calamities that had befallen France; and two of these pious and unoffending persons were soon burned to death at Paris.

Captivity and Illness of Francis I.

Four months after the battle of Pavia the captive Francis I. was conveyed into Spain and incarcerated in the tower of the Alcazar at Madrid. He was attacked by a dangerous illness, brought on by mortification and anxiety; and Charles V., who had not hitherto deigned to visit his former "good father," "friend" and "brother," now feared

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that his royal prisoner would die without signing the severe conditions of peace which he desired to exact from him. He visited the captive monarch in prison, and a few words from the triumphant Emperor so raised the spirits of his illustrious prisoner that his health improved.

Visited by Charles V.

The recently widowed Duchess of Alençon, the favorite sister of Francis I., undertook an embassy to Spain, with full authority to negotiate a treaty of peace between the two sovereigns; but she did not succeed in obtaining easy terms for her royal brother. Charles V. insisted upon a partition of France, by which he was to have Burgundy, Picardy and all the other territories of Charles the Bold of Burgundy; while Provence and all the Bourbon possessions were to be formed into a new kingdom for the Constable de Bourbon; and Normandy, Guienne and Gascony were to be bestowed on Henry VIII. of England. Thus the dominions of Francis I. would have been reduced to the territorial extent of the possessions of the first Capets.

Harsh Peace Demands of Charles V.

In January, 1526, Francis I., worn out with his incarceration in the gloomy tower of the Alcazar at Madrid, swore to the Peace of Madrid "on the word and honor of a king." By this treaty the King of France agreed to cede the duchy of Burgundy and the counties of Flanders and Artois to the Emperor Charles V., renounced all claim to Naples and Milan, and restored to the Constable de Bourbon all his former possessions. He had previously told his ambassadors that he had acted under compulsion, and that he had no intention of executing the conditions which he was about to sign. Nevertheless, the treaty was confirmed by his betrothal with the Emperor's sister Eleanora, the widowed Queen of Portugal. Two of the French king's sons were then delivered to Charles V. as hostages for the fulfillment of the treaty, and Francis I. bound himself to return to captivity if he did not relinquish Burgundy within four months.

Peace of Madrid.

Francis I. was then released and escorted to the French frontier, March 18, 1526. His joy at his release was unbounded. When he was once upon his own soil he mounted a Turkish horse; and, putting him at full speed and waving his hand over his head, he exclaimed aloud several times: "I am yet a king!"

Release of Francis I.

No sooner had the King of France been again free and in his own dominions than he refused to ratify the treaty which had been extorted from him while a prisoner, on the plea that he must first consult the Estates of France and Burgundy on a matter of such importance. When the Burgundian Estates convened at Cognac they insisted, according to prearrangement, that the King of France could not annul his coronation-oath by any subsequent agreement. The Burgundian envoys likewise asserted that they would forcibly resist any effort to alienate the duchy of Burgundy from the crown of France.

His Refusal to Ratify the Treaty.

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His Lack of Honor.

Francis I. then offered the Spanish ambassadors, who were present, two million crowns as a compensation for Burgundy, and promised to fulfill every other condition of the treaty. When Charles V. was informed of this evasion he remarked that it was easy for the King of France at least to redeem his personal honor by returning into captivity in Spain; but the honor of Francis I. was not of the same kind as that of Regulus, or that of his own ancestor, King John the Good; and Pope Clement VII. soon absolved him from his engagements with the Emperor.

Holy League against Charles V.

In the meantime the Italians had been thrown into consternation by the decisive victory of their powerful ally at Pavia, as all Italy appeared to be at the Emperor's mercy; and a *Holy League* was formed against Charles V. by Pope Clement VII., the Duke of Milan, the Venetian Republic and the King of France. Francisco Sforza had been restored to the Duchy of Milan only as a vassal; and his Chancellor, Morone, now contrived a plot to destroy the unity and freedom of Italy at one blow. The second war between Charles V. and Francis I. thus began, and lasted three years.

Second War of Charles V. with Francis I.

Pescara's Treason and Treachery.

Pescara, who was an Italian by birth, but a Spaniard by descent, was known to be disaffected toward the Emperor. He ascertained through a trusty messenger that all the Italian states were ready to unite in making him King of Naples if he would disband the imperial army which he commanded, and thus aid in delivering Italy from the German and Spanish yoke. When Pescara discovered that this conspiracy was already known in Madrid he determined upon a counter-plot to meet the advances of the Milanese. He therefore invited Morone to a personal interview, and concealed the Spanish general, Antonio de Leyva, behind the tapestry. When the unsuspecting Chancellor had fully disclosed his master's plans he was seized, thus finding himself Pescara's victim rather than his partner.

Constable de Bourbon as Duke of Milan.

Charles V. then deprived Francisco Sforza of the Duchy of Milan and bestowed it upon the Constable de Bourbon. Pescara died several weeks afterward. Morone remained a prisoner in Milan until the Constable de Bourbon, wanting money, first sentenced him to death, and then released him upon the payment of a ransom of twenty thousand ducats. The Milanese people, who had endured new miseries at every change of masters, hailed the Constable de Bourbon's arrival in the hope of a firm and settled government. The Constable promised to remove his army, which had been quartered upon the citizens of Milan, upon the payment of three hundred thousand crowns; but, when that sum was raised, the imperial troops still refused to evacuate the city, and some of the Milanese committed suicide in utter despair on account of their hopeless situation.

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Capture of Rome by Cardinal Colonna.

Pope Clement VII. soon endured greater misfortunes than the Milanese. Cardinal Colonna, a man of revengeful and lawless disposition, an old enemy of the Pope, but to whom he had been formally reconciled, suddenly raised an army of his own vassals and retainers, and marched against Rome. The Pope was besieged in the Castle of St. Angelo in September, 1526, and was forced to surrender in three days for want of provisions. Colonna's freebooters plundered the Vatican and St. Peter's Church. The Kings of France and England hastened to send money and troops to His Holiness; and Clement VII. was soon enabled to inflict a terrible vengeance upon the Colonnas, whose palaces in Rome were leveled with the ground, while their country estates were ravaged by the papal troops.

Revenge of Pope Clement VII.

March of Frundsberg and the Constable de Bourbon on Rome.

In May, 1527, Rome suffered a more serious calamity. Frundsberg, the celebrated Lutheran general, marched from Germany into Italy at the head of eleven thousand brigands, who had enlisted in his service in the hope of plunder rather than of pay. Frundsberg's force formed a junction with the Constable de Bourbon's unpaid and hungry troops at Milan, and this united German and Spanish army marched against Rome. On their way they were met by a papal embassy proposing a truce; but the soldiery, who were resolved upon their coveted prize, openly mutinied, and leveled their spears at their general's breast while he was seeking to pacify them. Frundsberg was so stung by their ingratitude that he fell into violent convulsions, from which he never recovered; and his soldiers, struck with remorse too late, subsided into order, only reiterating their cry of "Rome! Rome!"

Their Capture of Rome by Storm.

On the evening of May 5, 1527, the German and Spanish army arrived before the walls of Rome, and the next day the Eternal City was taken by storm and plundered by the soldiers of the leading Catholic prince of Christendom. The assault began in the morning, and the Constable de Bourbon was shot in the side while placing a ladder with his own hands. When he found that he must die he covered his face with his cloak, so that he might not be recognized, and breathed his last while his victorious troops were entering the papal capital. The Spanish and German troops selected the Prince of Orange for their general.

Bourbon's Death.

Pillage of Rome.

For two weeks the German and Spanish soldiery filled the religious capital of Christendom with the horrid scenes of massacre, pillage and desecration, and seized the treasures which had been the accumulation of so many centuries. The pillage of Rome by the Germans and Spaniards on this occasion equaled that of the Goths and the Vandals, more than a thousand years before. Convents, churches and dwelling-houses were plundered; and nearly eight thousand Romans were massacred on the day of the capture of the city. Pope Clement VII. was besieged in his Castle of St. Angelo, and soon obliged to surrender himself.

Pope Clement VII. a Prisoner.

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Action of Florence, Venice and Ferrara.

The Florentines took advantage of the presence of the German imperial army in Italy to expel the Medici and to place themselves under the protection of France, thus seeking to restore the republic which Savonarola had set up. Venice recovered Ravenna and Cervia, and the Dukes of Urbino and Ferrara took revenge for their former disasters by seizing several cities in the States of the Church.

Hypocrisy of Charles V.

Charles V. affected great sorrow and displeasure at the insults suffered by the Head of the Church, but was inwardly pleased at the Pope's humiliation; and, instead of ordering the release of the Holy Father, the hypocritical Emperor commanded prayers for the liberation of the Pontiff to be offered in all the churches in his dominions, and attired himself and his court in mourning.

Release of Pope Clement VII.

Clement VII. was liberated six months after the capture of Rome, upon the payment of a ransom of several hundred thousand crowns of gold. He promised to convene a general council to reform the Church and suppress heresy, and also engaged to cease meddling in the affairs of Milan and Naples.

French Successes in Italy.

A French army under Lautrec had already marched into Italy; and a French fleet commanded by Andrea Doria, the great Genoese admiral, besieged Genoa, expelled the Doge Adorno, and appointed a governor in the name of the King of France. Lautrec took Pavia by storm and sacked the town, in revenge for its resistance to Francis I. and his consequent disaster there in 1525. As Pope Clement VII. was now liberated, Lautrec marched into Southern Italy, and laid siege to Naples in conjunction with a Genoese and Venetian fleet. Had not the French king withheld the necessary supplies for his army, and offended the Dorias of Genoa by unjust treatment, Naples would have been taken. Andrea Doria deserted Francis I. and entered the service of Charles V., and sailed to Naples and forced the French to raise the siege. Lautrec had already died of a pestilence which had carried off most of his army.

Expulsion of the French from Genoa.

This fourth invasion of Italy by the armies of Francis I. was a failure. The Prince of Orange was made viceroy of Naples for Charles V. The French were driven from Genoa, and that republic was reorganized under the Emperor's protection. The old struggle of Guelfs and Ghibellines was ended by a more just and efficient constitution, by which public affairs were intrusted to a Council of Four Hundred; and Genoa was entirely free from revolutions thereafter until the French conquest of that republic in 1797.

Mutual Desire for Peace.

Both the rival monarchs were by this time weary of the war. The King of France, disheartened by his losses and the enormous expenses of the contest, was willing to relinquish his claims to Milan and Naples, which he perceived that he was unable to maintain; while the Emperor, alarmed at the rapid progress of the Reformation in Germany, desired peace with his rival in order to devote his entire attention thereto.

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Ladies' Peace of Cambray.

The second war between Charles V. and Francis I. was ended by the Peace of Cambray, in July, 1529—called the *Ladies' Peace*, because it was negotiated by the Emperor's aunt and the French king's mother. Francis I. retained the duchy of Burgundy, but relinquished all his pretensions to Italy, along with the feudal sovereignty of the counties of Artois and Flanders. Charles V. received an indemnity of two million crowns in lieu of his claims to Burgundy, and Francis I. was to aid him with a fleet and a subsidy of two hundred thousand crowns when called upon. The King of France also agreed to marry Eleanora, the queen-dowager of Portugal, the Emperor's sister. The sons of Francis I., who had been held as hostages at Madrid, were released, and accompanied the Emperor's sister from Spain. In July, 1530, she became the wife of the French king. Thus ended the wars which the French had waged in Italy during the reigns of three of their kings, and which embraced a period of thirty-six years (A. D. 1494–1529).

Turkish Conquests.

In the meantime, while the Emperor Charles V. was engaged in devising means to resist the progress of the Reformation in Germany, and in his wars with Francis I. of France, his attention was also occupied in opposing the alarming progress of the Turks under their mighty Sultan, Solyman the Magnificent, whose rapid conquests spread dismay throughout Christendom.

Sultan Solyman the Magnificent in Hungary.

On the death of Selim I. in 1520, after a short but active and vigorous reign of eight years, his illustrious son, SOLYMAN THE MAGNIFICENT, the greatest of all the Turkish Sultans, ascended the Ottoman throne. In the summer of 1521 Solyman invaded Hungary, captured the strong fortresses of Sabatz, Semlin and Belgrade, and conquered and annexed the southern part of the Hungarian kingdom, along with the Banat.

His Conquest of Rhodes.

In 1522 Solyman besieged the Knights of St. John in their stronghold, the isle of Rhodes, with an army of one hundred and ten thousand men and a fleet of three hundred ships. The Knights of St. John, under their renowned Grand Master, L'Ile Adam, were compelled to surrender to overwhelming numbers, December 21, 1522, after a long and valiant resistance. The Knights of St. John were then forced to retire from Rhodes, which they had held since the Crusades; and the Emperor Charles V. presented to them the isle of Malta, which they held until 1798.

His Continued Conquests.

In 1526 Europe was again thrown into the utmost consternation by the successes of Sultan Solyman the Magnificent. During the four years since his conquest of Rhodes, in 1522, he had completed the conquest of Egypt and shaken the very foundations of the Persian kingdom of the Suffeeans; after which he again turned toward Europe, declaring himself Emperor of the West as well as of the East, and

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designing to make Constantinople once more the capital of the civilized world.

His Invasion of Hungary.

Hungary was Solyman's first point of attack, and that kingdom had been reduced to the most deplorable weakness and poverty by the civil wars of its magnates. While the royal Council of Tolna was still wrangling about means to resist the Turkish invasion, the approach of the Turks was announced by the smoke of a burning town. Sultan Solyman the Magnificent, having crossed the Drave with three hundred thousand men, was in full march northward.

Battle of Mohacz.

King Louis II. of Hungary, with only twenty thousand men, made a stand against the immense hosts of the Ottoman Sultan in the marshy plain of Mohacz, in August, 1526. His army consisted mainly of heavily armed cavalry; while the Grand Turk had availed himself of the latest improvements in firearms, and had a thoroughly disciplined infantry and three hundred well-mounted cannon in his camp. The dashing valor of the Hungarians was useless, as the flower of their nobility soon lay dead on the sanguinary field; and their young king perished in the marsh while seeking to make his escape, being then only nineteen years of age.

Defeat and Death of Louis II. of Hungary.

Turkish Capture of Buda.

The triumphant Sultan marched toward Buda, burning towns and villages in his advance. After occupying the Hungarian capital for a fortnight he retired, taking with him the valuable library founded by Matthias Corvínus, and several works of art which were used to adorn Constantinople.

Archduke Ferdinand of Austria Becomes King of Bohemia and Hungary.

The death of King Louis II. at Mohacz left the crowns of Hungary and Bohemia vacant, and these were claimed by the Archduke Ferdinand of Austria, the brother of the Emperor Charles V., because he had married a sister of the unfortunate Louis II. Ferdinand was crowned at Prague as King of Bohemia, in February, 1527; but he found a formidable competitor for the Hungarian crown in John Zapolya, the greatest of the Hungarian magnates and the lord of seventy-two castles, and who was supported by the money and influence of Francis I. of France and Pope Clement VII. Zapolya received the crown of St. Stephen in November, 1526; but a party among the magnates pronounced in favor of Ferdinand, who marched with a large army from Bohemia into Hungary, won the battle of Tokay, and along with his wife was in turn crowned with the diadem of St. Stephen.

John Zapolya and Solyman the Magnificent.

John Zapolya then entered into an alliance with Sultan Solyman the Magnificent, who had subdued most of Bosnia, Croatia, Dalmatia and Slavonia, and again advanced to the plain of Mohacz in 1529, where Zapolya did homage to the Sultan for the Hungarian crown. After that degrading ceremony Zapolya accompanied the Grand Turk to Buda and aided in the massacre of its garrison.

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Turkish Siege of Vienna and Retreat.

The entire Turkish army, with the coöperation of a Turkish fleet in the Danube, then laid siege to Vienna, A. D. 1529. Both Catholics and Lutherans in Germany united in this perilous emergency, and the defense of Vienna was as resolute as the attack on the city was formidable. The very number of the Turks rendered their maintenance in a hostile country extremely difficult. They raised the siege of Vienna by the middle of October, 1529, and began their retreat from the Austrian capital, thus leaving John Zapolya alone to prosecute his civil war with Ferdinand of Austria.

Large German Army.

It was the progress of the Turks that compelled the Emperor Charles V. to conclude the Peace of Nuremberg with the League of Schmalkald in 1532. Upon the conclusion of this religious peace with his Protestant German subjects, the Emperor was soon followed near Vienna by an army of eighty thousand men.

Solyman's Third Invasion of Hungary.

Sultan Solyman the Magnificent invaded Hungary a third time, in 1532, with an army of three hundred and fifty thousand men, and with a dazzling display of Oriental magnificence. The garrisons of many of the Hungarian fortresses sent him their keys, and his march resembled a peaceful progress through his own dominions rather than a hostile invasion of an enemy's territory.

His Repulse at Guns.

But when the Turkish Sultan attacked the little fortress of Güns he encountered so gallant a resistance that his pride was severely wounded. His entire army was detained for more than three weeks by a garrison of only seven hundred men, who repulsed his eleven assaults upon the fortress, and who finally allowed only ten Janizaries to remain in the place an hour to erect the Ottoman standard.

His Retreat.

The Sultan was further discouraged by the operations of the Genoese admiral, Andrea Doria, in the Morea, the ancient Peloponnesus, and by the defeat of the Ottoman cavalry at the Sömmering Pass; and he therefore retreated hastily with the bulk of his mighty host, leaving only a force of sixty thousand men at Essek to support John Zapolya's interests.

Peace.

Peace was concluded between the Germano-Roman and Ottoman Turkish Empires the next year, A. D. 1533.

Conquest of Florence by Charles V.

After his eight years' residence in Spain, the Emperor Charles V. visited Italy in 1529 to restore the order which had been interrupted so long by his wars with Francis I. of France. He completely subverted the freedom of Florence, which Pope Clement VII. had already sold to him in the Treaty of Barcelona. When the citizens of Florence refused to recall the Medici he ordered the Prince of Orange to lay siege to the city.

Restoration of the Medici.

Florence was fortified by the great artist, Michael Angelo, and the Florentine army outside the walls offered a valiant resistance to the Emperor's troops; but as the best Florentine general was slain in battle, and as another had proven a traitor, the city was forced to surrender and to receive an imperial garrison, to pay an enormous ransom and to

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accept the hereditary rule of the Medici as dukes. The Prince of Orange was slain in the same battle; and, by his sister's marriage, his titles and dominions came into the possession of the House of Nassau.

Lombard and Imperial Coronation of Charles V.

The Emperor Charles V. proceeded to Bologna, where he was invested by Pope Clement VII. with the iron crown of Lombardy and with the imperial diadem. The German Electors were not invited to take their hereditary parts in the ceremony. The Duke of Savoy carried the imperial crown, the Marquis of Montferrat the scepter, and the Duke of Urbino the sword. Charles V. was the last Emperor crowned in Italy.

Marriage of Henry, Duke of Orleans, and Catharine de Medici.

Soon afterward Pope Clement VII., offended at the Emperor Charles V., courted the alliance of the King of France; and at Marseilles he negotiated the marriage of his niece, Catharine de Medici, with Henry, Duke of Orleans, the second son of Francis I. By the subsequent death of his elder brother, Henry became the heir to the French crown; and Catharine exerted a powerful and evil influence on the destinies of France during the reigns of her three sons.

Death of Pope Clement VII.

Pope Clement VII. died in September, 1534. His pontificate had been signalized by losses and disasters which none of his predecessors had experienced. He had been taken prisoner, and Rome had been plundered and desecrated, once by one of the cardinals of the Church, and once by the Emperor's troops. Large parts of Germany and Switzerland had finally severed their connection with the Church of Rome, as had also England, Denmark and Sweden. His successor in the Papacy was Alexander Farnese, who, upon his election by the conclave of cardinals, assumed the title of Paul III.

Pope Paul III.

Piracies of Hayraddin Barbarossa.

At this time the coasts of the Mediterranean were infested by Mohammedan pirates, particularly by the "flying squadrons" of Hayraddin Barbarossa, who had become King of Algiers upon the death of his brother Horuc. Sultan Solyman the Magnificent appointed this daring freebooter his admiral. Such was the terror spread by his piracies that no man slept securely along the coasts of Spain, France and Italy; and multitudes of Christian captives on the African coast were reduced to the most degrading servitude, while waiting to be ransomed. Hayraddin Barbarossa had recently taken possession of the Kingdom of Tunis, after expelling its rightful sovereign, Muley Hassan; and the terror of his name was vastly heightened by this increase of his power.

Successful Expedition of Charles V. against the Pirates.

In 1535 the Emperor Charles V. undertook a crusade against these Moslem pirates, and this was one of the most famous and successful of his enterprises. He mustered thirty thousand men at Cagliari, in the island of Sardinia, took command of the expedition in person, sailed to the African coast and effected a landing near the site of the ancient Utica. He took by storm the fortress of Goletta, which protects Tu-

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nis; after which he routed Hayraddin Barbarossa in a pitched battle, and took Tunis itself with the aid of the Christian captives. He restored Muley Hassan to his throne on condition that he should suppress piracy, protect his Christian subjects in the exercise of their religion, and pay to the Emperor an annual tribute of twelve thousand ducats. The liberated Christian captives, whom Charles V. had caused to be clothed and equipped at his own expense, preceded him to Europe and spread his fame with ardent gratitude through their respective countries. The number of liberated Christian captives was twenty-two thousand.

Third War of Charles V. with Francis I.

When Charles V. returned to Europe from his African expedition he became involved in his third war with Francis I. of France, caused by the French king's claim to the Duchy of Savoy. The reigning Duke of Savoy was the uncle of Francis I., but was closely allied with the Emperor by both marriage and interest. A French force overran Savoy early in 1536. As all efforts at negotiation failed, Charles V. declared war and assembled armies in Italy and the Netherlands to invade France from those two quarters.

Cruel Policy of Francis I.

In pursuance of the usual cruel policy of Francis I., the Constable de Montmorenci, the French commander, laid waste the region between the Rhone and the Alps, embracing Dauphiny and Provence. Towns, villages and mills were destroyed, crops were burned and wells were poisoned. Charles V. invaded Provence by way of Italy and besieged Marseilles, but the destructive policy of the Constable de Montmorenci soon forced the Emperor to make a disgraceful retreat. The imperial army which invaded Picardy from the Netherlands met with no better success.

Invasion of France by Charles V.

Alliance of Francis I. and Solyman the Magnificent.

Elated by his rival's discomfiture, Francis I. now cherished new plans of conquest in Italy and in the Netherlands. He formed an alliance with Sultan Solyman the Magnificent, who continued his invasions of Hungary, and whose fleets swept the Mediterranean, carrying off captives from the shores of Italy. But the French king's great preparations came to naught. An armistice was signed in July, 1537; and the ten years' Truce of Nice in 1538 was followed by the Peace of Toledo in 1539, the "Perpetual Peace." Francis I. kept Savoy, Bresse and half of Piedmont; while Charles V. retained the other half of Piedmont and the Duchy of Milan. The Duke of Savoy, who had been thus robbed of his dominions, had to content himself with the little county of Nice.

Truce of Nice and Peace of Toledo.

New Republic of Geneva.

Geneva, which had long been nominally subject to the Dukes of Savoy, but really ruled by its bishops, now became an independent republic, and was ruled for twenty-five years by John Calvin, through whose influence it became the stronghold of the Reformation in all French-

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speaking lands, and a great European center of religious, political and scientific progress.

Alliance of Charles V. and Francis I. against Henry VIII. of England.

Under the influence of the Constable de Montmorenci, King Francis I. broke off his friendship with Henry VIII. of England and his alliance with the Turkish Sultan and with the Lutheran princes of Germany who had formed the League of Schmalkald, while he cultivated the Emperor's friendship. The French ambassador in England even proposed a scheme for the partition of that kingdom between Charles V., Francis I., and James V. of Scotland. When the English monarch was informed of this project he allied himself more closely with the League of Schmalkald by marrying Anne of Cleves, his fourth wife, the sister of the wife of the Elector John Frederick of Saxony, one of the most powerful of the Protestant princes of Germany and the great champion of the Reformation.

Moorish Piracies Renewed.

Hayraddin Barbarossa's pirate fleet soon resumed its ravages in the Levant and wrested almost all the islands of the Archipelago from the Venetians, who also lost several places on the mainland, and were forced to pay a ransom which exhausted their resources and left the Venetian Republic dependent upon the protection of France.

Charles V. and the Spanish Cortes.

Though the Emperor Charles V., as King of Spain, was master of the wealthy countries of Mexico and Peru, in the New World, he found great difficulty in meeting the expenses of his government; and the Spaniards were so reluctant to be taxed for enterprises in which they had no interest that their Cortes refused to vote supplies. Charles revenged himself by ceasing to convene the Cortes. The grandees, thus deprived of political power, consoled themselves by maintaining all the ceremony of royal courts in their palaces and country-seats and by exercising sovereignty over thousands of vassals. When they had ruined their fortunes by their extravagance, and had lost all their warlike energy by a life of indolence, they were no longer formidable to their great sovereign.

Decline of the Spanish Grandees.

Ghent's Revolt against Charles V.

The Emperor's subjects in the Netherlands likewise protested against the oppressive taxation with which he burdened them. His native city, Ghent, rose in revolt and sent envoys to the King of France, acknowledging him as its sovereign. As Francis I. was at that time on friendly terms with Charles V. he betrayed the confidence of the insurgents of Ghent, and even invited the Emperor to pass through France on his way to punish the rebels.

Demand of Francis I. Rejected by Charles V.

Francis entertained Charles with the greatest magnificence, but as soon as the Emperor had entered the Netherlands he received a demand from the King of France for the investiture of Milan as compensation for his safe passage through France. Charles V. refused this demand except upon conditions which Francis I. would not accept, and during

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the same year the Duchy of Milan was conferred on the Emperor's son Philip.

Cruel Suppression of the Revolt in Ghent by Charles V.

Charles V. entered the rebellious city of Ghent, his birthplace, on his birthday, when he was forty years of age, A. D. 1540. All the leading citizens, with bare heads and bare feet, implored pardon on their knees; but their sovereign's vengeance was not softened by submission. Twenty magistrates were beheaded. The old Abbey of St. Bavon and the Bell Roland, which, from its tower, had so often summoned a free people to arms, were destroyed; and the fines of the citizens went to pay for the erection of a fortress on its site. Charles deprived Ghent of all its political privileges. Its commercial prosperity was transferred to Antwerp. The Northern provinces of the Netherlands inherited its brave enthusiasm for freedom, and afterward wrested their independence from Charles's son and successor, as we shall presently see.

New Alliance of Francis I. and Solyman the Magnificent against Charles V.

Disappointed in his mercenary designs, Francis I. of France dismissed the Constable de Montmorenci, and renewed his alliance with the Lutheran princes of Germany and with Sultan Solyman the Magnificent. The death of King John Zapolya of Hungary was followed by a renewal of hostilities between the German and Ottoman Empires. Before the troops which the German Diet at Ratisbon had voted could take the field against the Turks, Solyman the Magnificent had entered Buda, the Hungarian capital, a third time, A. D. 1541; and that city remained under the Turkish government and the Mohammedan religion for the next one hundred and forty-six years, until its recovery by Austria in 1687.

Turkish Successes in Hungary.

Ferdinand of Austria vainly sent ambassadors to the Grand Turk, offering to hold Hungary as a tributary of the Ottoman Porte. The haughty Sultan replied by demanding an annual tribute from Ferdinand for the Archduchy of Austria. The Elector Joachim II. of Brandenburg led a German army into Hungary and laid siege to Pesth, opposite Buda, but he failed; and the Turks took one town after another in Hungary until 1547, when Sultan Solyman the Magnificent consented to a truce for five years, as he desired to turn his arms against Persia. The Ottoman Porte appointed twelve officers to govern Turkish Hungary.

Truce.

Second Expedition of Charles V. against the Moorish Pirates.

In 1541 the Emperor Charles V. led another expedition to Africa, for the purpose of thoroughly annihilating the power of the piratical Mohammedans of Algiers. But this expedition was a total failure. The fleet of Charles was destroyed by a terrible storm, and many of his followers died of a pestilential disease; and the Emperor, who had magnanimously shared all the sufferings of the humblest of his followers, was obliged to reëmbark and to return to Europe without effecting

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his object, landing at the Spanish port of Cartagena in December of the same year, A. D. 1541.

Fourth War of Charles V. with Francis I.

Francis I. of France received the news of the Emperor's calamities in Africa with unconcealed joy, and at once proceeded to enter into an alliance with the Sultan of Turkey, the Kings of Denmark and Sweden, the Duke of Cleves and the rebellious party in Naples, against Charles V.; but Henry VIII. of England, offended by the French king's intrigues with King James V. of Scotland, rejected the advances of Francis I.

French Invasion of the Netherlands.

In the summer of 1542 five French armies were in the field against the Emperor, three of which were to invade the Netherlands, one to operate in Italy and one to threaten Spain. The French army under the Duke of Guise took many of the fortresses of Luxemburg; but the French king's second son, who nominally commanded this French army, disbanded his army and was to join his brother, the Dauphin, who commanded the French army which operated against Spain, and who was planning a pitched battle; and the regent of the Netherlands easily retook Luxemburg and Montmédy.

Unsuccessful Siege of Perpignan by the French.

The Dauphin was unsuccessful in the siege of Perpignan, through the incompetency of his engineers and the violence of the autumnal rains. Perpignan was defended by the Spanish force under the Duke of Alva, with the coöperation of the Genoese admiral, Andrea Doria. Francis I. approached within forty miles of the beleaguered town, but when he perceived the hopelessness of the enterprise he ordered the raising of the siege. His vast preparations had been dissipated in trivial undertakings, and the results of his efforts were the capture of a few small towns in Picardy and in Northern Italy.

The Duke of Cleves Chastised by Charles V.

Charles V. now proceeded to Germany to chastise the Duke of Cleves for his alliance with the King of France. The Emperor took Düren, in the duchy of Jüliers, or Jülich, by storm, and caused the entire population of the town to be massacred; whereupon the duchy of Jülich immediately submitted to the Emperor, and the Duke of Cleves hastened to offer his submission to his offended sovereign. The Emperor refused to look at him for a time; but at length he granted very humiliating terms of peace to the humbled duke, who was obliged to give up the provinces of Guelders and Zutphen in the Netherlands, to renounce the Protestant worship and the alliance with France, and to transfer all the ducal troops to the imperial armies.

Turkish Ravages in Italy.

The Turkish freebooters, the most disgraceful allies of the French, ravaged Southern Italy, burning Reggio, destroying all vineyards and olive-orchards near the coast, carrying off many of the inhabitants, and appearing at the mouth of the Tiber and threatening Rome itself. When the French ambassador interfered in the Pope's behalf, Hayrad-

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din Barbarossa sailed to Marseilles, where he found a ready market for his Italian captives, May, 1543. To pacify the Turkish admiral, Francis I. ordered an attack on Nice; and that stronghold of the Duke of Savoy was bombarded by the allied French and Turkish fleets, but was saved from capture by the opportune arrival of Andrea Doria's Genoese fleet and a Spanish army, which drove away the Franco-Turkish fleet. The French king assigned the city of Toulon to the Turks for winter-quarters, and for the time that French sea-port was a Mohammedan town. The disgraceful union of the Cross and the Crescent, in the alliance of the French with the Turks, shocked all Christendom.

French and Turkish Bombardment of Nice.

The imminent peril with which the near presence of the Turks menaced the dominions of Charles V. induced the Emperor to renew his concessions to the Lutheran princes of Germany in the Diet of Spires in 1544; and the Lutherans in return vied with the Catholics of the German Empire in voting supplies for the war against the Emperor's foreign foes.

Charles V. and His Lutheran Subjects.

Hostilities were vigorously prosecuted in Piedmont during the winter of 1543–'44. The French under the Count d'Enghien defeated the imperialists at Cerisolles, in Savoy, April 14, 1544. As the King of France had secured the alliance of the Turks by sacrificing all other alliances, he was now obliged to get rid of these uncontrollable allies by the payment of almost a million crowns. The Turkish corsairs had conducted themselves at Toulon as if they had been in an enemy's country, seizing men even in the royal galleys for service in the Turkish fleet, and enslaving all whom they captured in the vicinity. Hayraddin Barbarossa had sailed for Constantinople in April, 1544, desolating the Italian coasts on his way.

Battle of Cerisolles.

Insolent Conduct of the Turks.

In the meantime Charles V. had secured the alliance of Henry VIII. of England; and by a treaty which these two monarchs signed in February, 1543, they agreed to attempt the conquest of France, and, if successful, to partition that kingdom between them. In July, 1544, Henry VIII. landed at Calais with thirty thousand men, and took Boulogne after a siege of two months; while Charles V. led a large army into Champagne and besieged St. Dizier for six weeks, during which Francis I. was enabled to raise a large army to cover the approaches to Paris. When the Emperor had advanced to Chateau Thierry, within two days' march of Paris, he opened negotiations with the French king, without consulting his ally, the King of England.

Alliance of Charles V. and Henry VIII.

Their Invasion of France.

By the Peace of Crespy between Charles V. and Francis I., September 18, 1544, each monarch relinquished the territory which he had taken since the Truce of Nice in 1538. The King of France once more renounced his claims to Naples and Flanders, and agreed to surrender Savoy on condition that his third son, the Duke of Orleans, should be

Peace of Crespy.

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invested with the Duchy of Milan, and should receive in marriage a daughter of the Emperor or of the Emperor's brother, the Archduke Ferdinand of Austria. The French king also agreed to coöperate with the Emperor in suppressing the Reformation and in defending Christendom against the Turks.

Savoy and Milan.

The premature death of the Duke of Orleans prevented the execution of the articles of the Treaty of Crespy concerning the Duchies of Savoy and Milan. Henry VIII. refused to take part in the Treaty of Crespy, and a desultory war went on between him and Francis I. until June, 1546, when peace was signed between them.

Final Peace.

Religious Persecution in the Netherlands by Charles V.

Both Charles V. and Francis I. at once proceeded to execute the article of the Peace of Crespy relating to the extirpation of heresy in their respective dominions. Charles ordered certain doctors of the University of Louvain to draw up a Confession of Faith, which he required all his subjects in the Netherlands to accept under penalty of death. To show that he was in earnest, he caused Peter du Breuil, a Calvinistic preacher, to be burned to death in the market-place of Tournay, February, 1545.

Persecution of the Vaudois by Francis I.

The King of France signalized his zeal for the Catholic faith by a persecution of the innocent Vaudois, or Waldenses, in the high Alpine valleys between France and Piedmont—a persecution so cruel that it would have disgraced the worst of the pagan Roman Emperors. The simple Vaudois had retained the purity of their Christian faith and worship from the earliest times, uncorrupted by the materialistic rites which had found their way into the wealthier and more elegant churches. They had recently hailed the doctrines of the Reformation as in accordance with their own faith—a circumstance which drew the attention of Europe to these hitherto-unnoticed and obscure heretics.

Cruel Edict of the Parliament of Paris.

On New Year's Day, 1545, Francis I. addressed a letter to the Parliament of Provence, demanding the execution of the decree which it had passed in 1540 for the suppression of heresy, but which had been suspended hitherto by the intercession of the German Protestants. This atrocious edict required all fathers of families who persisted in heresy to be burned, their wives and children to be reduced to serfdom, their property to be confiscated and their dwellings to be destroyed.

Devastation and Massacre in the Vaudois Country.

A Vaudois colony settled in the rugged mountain region north of the Durance, which their patient industry had converted into a fruitful garden, was the special object of the French king's persecution. The Baron d'Oppède, whose forces had been trained by the plundering and devastating campaigns of the French in Italy, was a fit instrument for this work of desolation. His bands soon overran the Vaudois country, laid waste the vineyards, orchards and grain-fields, and massacred the innocent inhabitants. The little town of Cabrières was induced to sur-

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FRANCIS I AND CHARLES V VISITING THE TOMBS OF THE FRENCH KINGS IN ST. DENIS

From the Painting by A. J. Gros

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render by a promise that no one should be put to death—a promise that was violated as soon as the population were in the power of their cruel foes, who slaughtered their innocent victims without the least show of mercy. Those who had sought refuge in the mountains were hunted like wild beasts; and some of the strongest were chained to the galleys, while the others were butchered.

Religious Persecution throughout France.

This cruel persecution of the simple Vaudois horrified most of Europe; but the French clergy, who had demanded it of their king, boldly avowed and sanctioned the atrocity. The fires of persecution were kindled throughout France, and Protestants were publicly burned at Paris, Meaux, Sens and Issoire. Briçonnet, the good Bishop of Meaux, had introduced the Reformed doctrines into that city twenty years before; and it became one of the centers of the Reformation in France. One of its martyrs was Stephen Dolet, a celebrated French scholar and author, who was highly esteemed by the literary men of that period.

Character and Abilities of Francis I.

Notwithstanding his many faults and vices, Francis I. was one of the greatest of the Kings of France. His great weakness was his subserviency to his wicked mother and mistresses, who ruled him thoroughly, and whose folly was accountable for most of the reverses which had befallen him. But his great sagacity clearly perceived the danger with which France and all Europe were menaced by the towering ambition of the illustrious royal Austrian House of Hapsburg. He struggled single-handed for thirty years against the most powerful monarch that had reigned in Christendom since the time of Charlemagne, and left France to his successor wholly unimpaired and even increased in territorial extent.

His Patronage of Learning and Arts.

Francis I. was called the *Restorer of Letters and the Arts*, because of the wise and liberal encouragement and patronage which he gave to the revival of learning and the arts which distinguished his era; and many of the noblest monuments of France had their origin during his reign.

His Death.

He died March 31, 1547, of a painful malady from which he had long suffered, and which had been caused by his immoral life; and was succeeded by his son Henry II. Henry VIII. of England died the same year.

Six Great Sovereigns.

Thus two of the six great contemporary European sovereigns of the first half of the sixteenth century passed from the world's stage. The four remaining were the Emperor Charles V., Sultan Solyman the Magnificent of Turkey, the Czar Ivan the Terrible of Russia and King Gustavus Vasa of Sweden. These six contemporary monarchs of Europe in that eventful epoch stamped their names indelibly upon the history of that memorable period, so prolific in results for the advance of civilization and humanity.

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SECTION III.—EMPEROR CHARLES V. AND THE GERMAN REFORMATION (A. D. 1517–1531).

The Reformation.

THE great religious Reformation, which caused the separation of most of the Teutonic nations from the Roman Church, was one of the most important events connected with the opening of the modern era.

Corruption of the Church.

For several centuries the Chair of St. Peter had been occupied by Popes whose vices and crimes were a reproach to Christendom; and men doubted whether such creatures were God's agents upon earth. The pious and eloquent St. Bernard—although a staunch adherent of the Church—had as early as the twelfth century condemned the vices of the Popes and clergy. Monks and nuns disgraced themselves by their shameful vices. All attempts at reformation were sternly suppressed by the Popes, backed by the whole power of the Church. We have noticed the extinction of the unfortunate creed of the Albigenses in blood; the bold denial of the papal assumptions by Wycliffe and Huss, the martyrdom of Huss, and the suppression of their attempts at reformation; and the bold denunciation of the wickedness of Popes and clergy by the pious Florentine, Savonarola, and his consequent martyrdom.

Unworthy Popes.

After the Councils of Constance and Basle, the Church continued to grow more and more corrupt. Seventy great crimes had been proven against Pope John XXIII. Alexander VI. (1492–1503), the worst of the Popes, poisoned political opponents and cardinals to obtain their wealth; and, as we have seen, his death was caused by accidentally drinking poisoned wine which he had intended for another. Julius II. (1503–1513), the warlike Pope, swore at God for giving the French the victory; and his military ambition and desire to extend his dominions ill accorded with his spiritual office. Pope Leo X. (1513–1521)—John de Medici, the accomplished but dissolute son of Lorenzo the Magnificent, the illustrious ruler of Florence—disgraced his station by his vices and his irreligion; although he was a great patron of literature and the arts.

Rev. Dr. Martin Luther.

As we shall presently see, the great Reformation was begun in Germany in 1517 by Dr. Martin Luther's bold opposition to the papal assumptions. Luther was the son of a miner, and was born at Eisleben, in Saxony, November 10, 1483. His father had destined him to study. Like other poor scholars, he earned his daily bread by singing from door to door, and in this way he cultivated that love and talent for music which afterward enabled him to move the German heart by his hymns.

Luther as a Monk at Erfurt

Luther had studied jurisprudence for four years at the University of Erfurt, when anxiety for the salvation of his soul, and the sudden

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death of a friend, caused him to enter an Augustinian monastery in 1507; and he was finally admitted as a monk, but he obtained no alleviation of his melancholy. His experience in the monastery at Erfurt caused him to regard the rites of the Church as insufficient to give peace to his soul, and only when he devoted himself diligently to the study of a Latin Bible which he found chained in the library did he obtain any comfort to his conscience.

Luther at Wittenberg.

In 1508 Luther was appointed Professor of Theology in the new University of Wittenberg, founded by Frederick the Wise, Elector of Saxony. His appointment was made on the recommendation of Staupitz, the chief of the Augustinian order. His clear and vigorous style caused multitudes of students to throng to his lectures. The Elector Frederick the Wise was a devout member of the Church, but also a firm friend and protector of Luther, whom he highly appreciated as the main ornament of his favorite university; and the esteem in which the Saxon Elector was held throughout Germany secured a respectful hearing for Luther's doctrines.

Luther's Visit to Rome.

The insight which Luther had gained during his monastic life, and which made him doubt the efficacy of some of the doctrines and practices of the Church, was strengthened by a journey to Rome in 1510 on business connected with his Augustinian order, when his suspicions were fully confirmed. The warlike pomp and ambition of Pope Julius II., the avowed skepticism of the clergy, and their sacrilegious contempt for the mysteries of the faith, shocked his religious nature. While ascending the Holy Staircase he was reminded of the words "The just shall live by faith"; and these became the watchword of the Reformation. He said in after years: "I would not for a hundred thousand florins have missed seeing Rome. I should always have felt an uneasy doubt whether I was not, after all, doing injustice to the Pope. As it is, I am quite satisfied on the point."

Doctrine of Indulgences.

The sale of *indulgences*—which Protestants call *licenses to sin*—brought matters to a crisis, and was the immediate cause of Luther's separation from the Church of Rome. In the Roman Catholic Church an *indulgence* means a remission of the temporal punishment inflicted upon a repentant sinner and still due after the sin and its eternal punishment have been remitted. As this doctrine of indulgences has been the subject of much controversy between Roman Catholic and Protestant theologians, and as this doctrine was the chief among the proximate causes of the Reformation, it is entitled to very careful consideration, since the disputes between Roman Catholics and Protestants as to nature and character of these indulgences are the source of all the controversy concerning the origin and causes of the Reformation. We must here confine ourselves to a brief authentic explanation of the doc-

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trine of indulgences as held by the Roman Catholic Church, along with a short history of the practice of this doctrine in the various ages of the Church.

History of the Practice of Granting Indulgences.

By the discipline of the first few centuries of the Christian Church a severe course of penitential observance was exacted of all who committed any serious crime, particularly apostasy, murder and adultery, such sinners being excluded from Church communion for various periods, in some cases even until the hour of death. According to the Roman Catholic view, these penitential observances were designed as the penitent's expiation for the temporal punishment which he had still undergone after God had forgiven the sin and remitted its eternal punishment; but Protestants consider these penitential observances as purely disciplinary. Some of the most acrimonious of the early controversies in the Church—the Montanist and the Novatian—arose concerning the Church's power to relax these penitential observances and to admit grievous sinners to communion. The Roman Catholics regard these ancient relaxations as examples of the modern indulgence, and for a type of these examples they refer to First Corinthians, first chapter and fifth verse, and Second Corinthians, second chapter and tenth verse. The Roman Catholic theologians maintain that the practice of granting such relaxations on the recommendation of martyrs or confessors is an illustration of that principle of vicarious atonement according to which the Church is supposed to supply from the inexhaustible treasure of the merits of Christ and of the "supererogatory" works of the saints what may be lacking to the completeness of the atonement of the less perfect but yet truly penitent sinner to whom the Church grants the indulgence. This practice grew up in the third and fourth centuries of the Christian era, and was carried to great extremes even at that early period. The Council of Ancyra in A. D. 308, and the Council of Nice in A. D. 325, both decreed that this practice of relaxation was to be used according to the judgment of the bishops as to the disposition of the penitent, whatever the real signification of the practice may have been. But in all cases the person granting the relaxation was to impose certain good works on the penitent as a partial substitute for the penalty which had been relaxed. These good works were at first purely personal, but among them came to be included by degrees money payments for certain religious or charitable objects, such as the erection of a church or the founding of a monastery or a hospital. The name indulgence seems to have been of later origin, the first recorded instance of its use being by Pope Alexander II. in the eleventh century, but the institution itself is seen in complete development during the Crusades, as the Council of Clermont accepted service in the First Crusade, or the contribution of service therein, "as an

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equivalent substitute for all penance, provided it were for devotion alone, and not from motives of greed or of glory," such an indulgence being called "plenary," as being distinguished from "partial" indulgence, where only a portion of the penitential works was relaxed. In order to check the excessive multiplication of these plenary indulgences and to stop other abuses, Pope Innocent III. declared that the power of granting such indulgences must be reserved to the Pope alone, bishops being authorized only to grant the partial or limited indulgences, described above. The Fourth Lateran Council condemned the "indiscreet and superfluous" granting of indulgences. One of the most remarkable of the abuses which grew up in the Church during the Great Schism was the lavish dispensation of indulgences, the rival Popes appearing to be trying to outdo each other in such prodigality. But the extreme to which the dispensing of indulgences was reached was early in the sixteenth century, as we shall now see, along with the portentous results emanating therefrom.

Sale of Indulgences.

Thus it will be seen that the traffic in indulgences had risen from apparently innocent beginnings, by successive degrees, until it became the chief source of income to the papal treasury. At first, the remission of temporal penalties for sin was promised to all who took part in the Crusades; then to those who founded churches or monasteries, or to those who paid a certain sum of money as a commutation for personal service; and afterwards to those who performed pilgrimages, especially by visiting Rome during the years of Jubilee, wholly as a religious duty.

Extension of Indulgences.

Pope Alexander VI. first assumed the right to remit the penalties of sin in a future life, in consideration of money paid or penances performed in this life. These indulgences soon became very popular; and people sought by their means to deliver the souls of their departed friends from the pains of purgatory, and to secure the same immunities for themselves hereafter.

Indulgences in Germany.

Germany was the great market for the sale of indulgences, either from the credulity or piety of its people; and the large sums annually remitted to Rome on this account were there styled "the sins of the Germans." The management of this revenue was so open that the Popes farmed it out to the great Augsburg bankers, the Fuggers, and sometimes granted parts of it to temporal princes for limited times. Thus Frederick the Wise had himself obtained the sale of indulgences in Saxony for the purpose of building a bridge over the Elbe. In 1508 the King of Hungary received two-thirds of the proceeds in his kingdom for the prosecution of his wars against the Turks. The Emperor at one time permitted the sale only on condition of the payment of one-third into his treasury.

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Pope Leo X. and Indulgences.

In order to defray the expenses of building the great Cathedral of St. Peter's at Rome, which had been commenced by his famous predecessor Julius II., Pope Leo X. pushed the sale of indulgences with increased energy. The Elector Albert, Archbishop of Mayence and Primate of Germany—a young and immoral churchman—had bought his ecclesiastical dignity at an enormous price; and the Pope aided him to pay for it by a special dispensation of indulgences.

Tetzel's Sale of Indulgences.

The archbishop employed John Tetzel, a Dominican monk of infamous and immoral character, as his agent for the sale of these indulgences throughout Germany. Tetzel traveled over the country selling for a fixed price remission for past and future sins. Cried he: "Pour in your money, and whatever crimes you have committed, or may commit, are forgiven! Pour in your coin, and the souls of your friends and relations will fly out of purgatory the moment they hear the clink of your money at the bottom of the box!" The sentiment here conveyed was expressed in the following lines in German:

"So wie das geld im kasten klingt,
Die seele aus dem fegfeuer springt."

"As in the box the money rings,
The soul from purgatory springs."

Controversy as to the Above.

The above account of Tetzel's words on this occasion, as derived from Protestant sources, is the subject of bitter controversy, Roman Catholic authorities maintaining that facts are here misrepresented, and that Tetzel did not use the language imputed to him in this instance.

Tetzel's Form of Absolution.

The following was Tetzel's form of absolution: "May our Lord Jesus Christ have mercy upon thee, and absolve thee by all the merits of his most holy passion; and I, by his authority, that of his blessed apostles, Peter and Paul, and of the most holy Pope, granted and committed to me in these parts, do absolve thee first from all ecclesiastical censures, in whatever manner they have been incurred, and then from all thy sins, trangressions and excesses, how enormous soever they may be, even from such as are reserved for the cognizance of the Holy See; and as far as the keys of the Holy Church extend I remit to you all punishment which you deserve in purgatory on their account; and I restore you to the holy sacraments of the Church, to the unity of the faithful, and to that innocence and purity which you possessed at baptism; so that when you die the gates of punishment shall be shut, and the gates of the paradise of delight shall be opened; and if you shall not die at present this grace shall remain in full force when you are at the point of death. In the name of the Father, and of the Son, and of the Holy Ghost."

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A Young Knight's Trick.

A gay young knight, who saw an opportunity for sport, bought an indulgence permitting him to beat and plunder a man for whom he said that he had a thorough contempt. After the paper had been duly signed and a liberal price paid for the indulgence, the knight with a band of his men-at-arms waylaid Tetzel himself in a wood, robbing him of the chest of gold which he had gained by the sale of his indulgences.

Roman Catholic View of Indulgences.

The principal condition of the plenary indulgence granted by Pope Leo X. was the contribution to the erection of St. Peter's Cathedral at Rome. Roman Catholic historians contend that in itself such a condition was perfectly justifiable, and that if duly explained to the people it might be lawfully and even meritoriously complied with; but they admit that many of the preachers of the indulgence went to indefensible extremes in extolling its natural effects, and that it cannot be denied that very serious abuses both of doctrine and of practice were committed in Germany and Switzerland, though in themselves indulgences were all right. This explanation shows that the Roman Catholics do not regard an indulgence as a remission of sin, much less a permission to commit sin or a promise of pardon of future sin; but they contend also that the imputation of introducing laxity of principle and easy self-indulgence is wholly unwarranted, as the benefit of an indulgence can be enjoyed only by a sinner who has repented of sin and resolved to lead a new life; and they likewise maintain that sorrow for sin and sincere purpose of repentance, as the one indispensable preliminary, in itself involves the very brightest effort of Christian virtue, although the good works required as the condition of obtaining the indulgence may seem easy and trivial for the most part.

Protestant View.

On the subject of indulgences Protestants usually quote the words of the Popes in granting them, instead of the views expressed by Roman Catholics in defending them. One of the most common things is for the Popes, in their bulls of Jubilee, to grant the most plenary and complete indulgence, pardon and remission of all sins, on certain specified conditions. And Protestants argue that the people necessarily place such an undue importance on these indulgences as to have a very unfavorable effect on penitence, virtue, faith and piety; as they are limited to a certain period, as the year of Jubilee, and to certain conditions, as saying certain prayers, visiting certain churches, wearing or kissing a scapular, or the like; even although the indulgences are granted only to "the faithful who are truly penitent and have confessed." Protestants also maintain that the whole doctrine of indulgences is founded not only on an unwarranted assumption of power bestowed on the Church, but also on a doctrine of human works and merits inconsistent with what the Scriptures teach concerning the office of Christ as a Saviour.

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Luther's Ninety-five Theses.

Tetzel's disgraceful traffic shocked many good men, and his overbearing conduct aroused great indignation in Germany. Animated by his new and ardent belief in justification by faith alone, Dr. Martin Luther preached vigorously and energetically against the traffic in indulgences, and refused absolution to any of his hearers who should buy the indulgences from Tetzel. On October 31, 1517, Luther nailed to his church-door his *ninety-five theses*, boldly denying the Pope's right to sell indulgences, and declaring that remission of sins is from God alone. This was the beginning of the great *Reformation*, which rapidly spread and which ended in the withdrawal of the Teutonic nations from the Church of Rome.

Luther's Disputation with John von Eck.

Tetzel and others of the clergy published replies to Luther's theses, and the matter was finally reported at Rome. Pope Leo X. paid little attention to this at first, saying: "It is a quarrel of the monks." He also said that Luther wrote well, and was evidently a man of genius. Dr. John von Eck, or Eckius, Chancellor of the University of Ingolstadt, a learned man and skillful in argument, was one of the first to oppose Luther in Leipsic. He composed a book in which he undertook to show that Luther's heresy was identical with that of Huss, but Luther replied with such overwhelming force that Eck sought revenge by inducing the Pope to interfere and silence the audacious Reformer of Wittenberg. In his disputation with Eck, Luther maintained that the Bishop of Rome was made Head of the Church by human and not by divine ordination, and expressed doubt of the infallibility of Councils and of the Pope himself. It was these bold avowals that caused Eck to compose his learned work called *The Obelisks*. Luther had urged that the Bishop of Rome became Head of the Church by a human arrangement, made some centuries after the rise of Christianity. Eck endeavored to prove that such was not the case, and proceeded to Rome with his book.

Luther's Partisans.

Luther's ninety-five theses had created great excitement in Germany, and a party had rapidly been formed about him which demanded a thorough reform in the doctrines and discipline of the Church. This party was very strong in the German cities. Luther advanced steadily in his opinions and promulgated his views more boldly, thus driving forward the movement which he had begun with every advance of his own.

Pope Leo X., Luther and the Elector of Saxony.

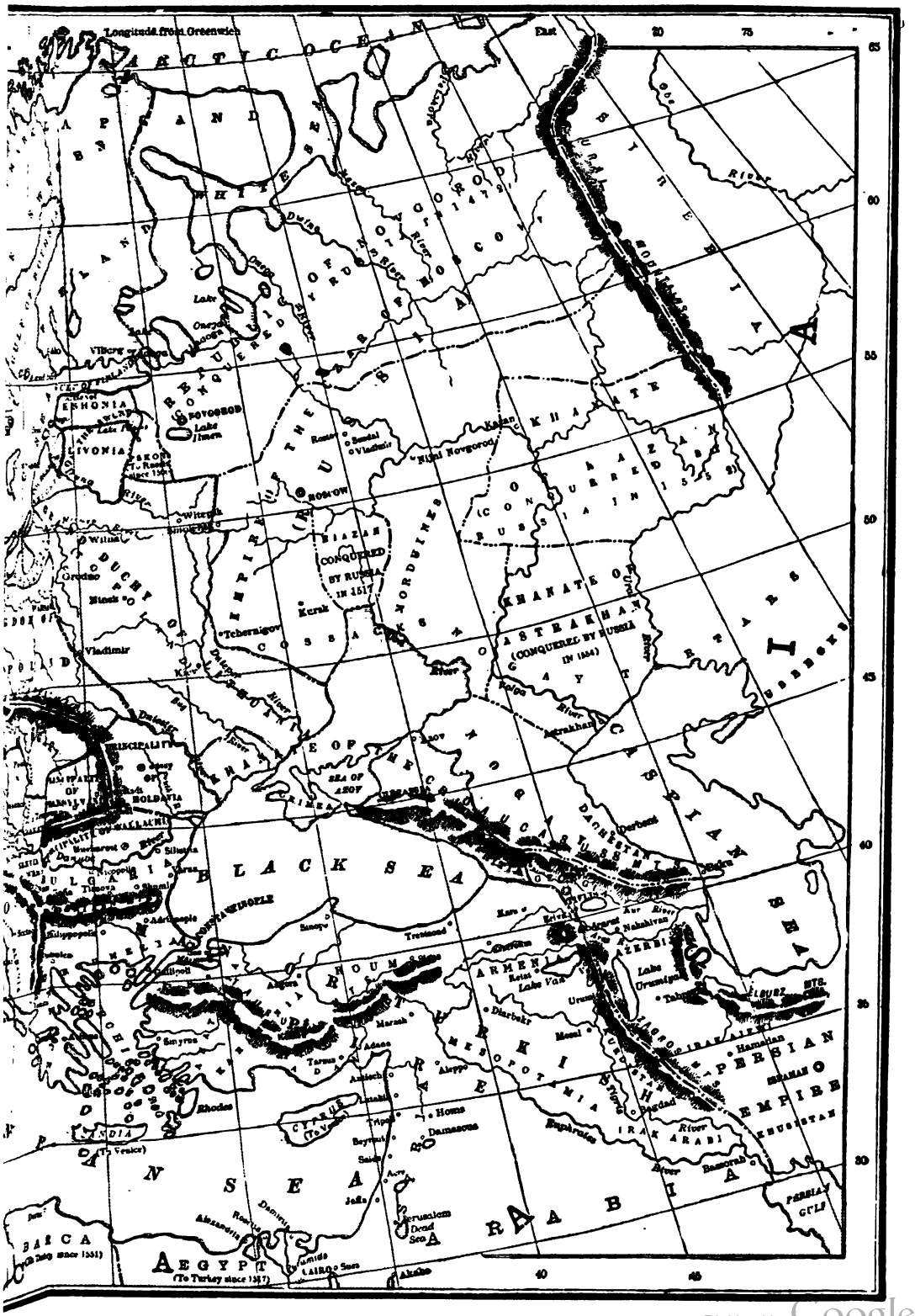
Pope Leo X. finally aroused himself to the significance of the movement in Germany, and summoned Luther to appear at Rome; but the Elector of Saxony was well aware of what would be the Reformer's fate if he obeyed the Pope's summons, and therefore interposed as Luther's sovereign by forbidding him to go to Rome and demanding that he should be tried for his doctrines in Germany.

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MAP OF
EUROPE
DURING THE REFORMATION
ABOUT 1555 A.D.
By I.S.Clare
SCALE OF MILES
ICELAND
(To Denmark)
FAROE ISLES
(To Denmark)
SHETLAND ISLES
ORKNEY ISLES
HEBRIDES
NORTH SEA
ATLANTIC OCEAN
BAY OF BISCAY
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
ENGLISH CHANNEL
St. George's Chan.
Scilly Isles
IRELAND
(To England)
KINGDOM OF FRANCE
PARIS
KINGDOM OF SPAIN
MADRID
PORTUGAL
(To Spain)
Lisbon
Gibraltar
(To England)
Strait of Gibraltar
Ceuta
Tangier
MOROCCO
ATLAS MOUNTAINS
EMPIRE OF FEZ
KINGDOM OF ALGIERS
(To Turkey, 1520-1830)
Algiers
Oran
Tlemcen
Bona
Tunis
Kairwan
Malta
(To Knights of St. John
1529-1798)
TRIPOLI
(To Knights of St. John
1523-1668
To Turkey since 1551)
Barbary
Brabant
Flanders
Holland
Zeeland
Gelderland
Overyssel
Friesland
Groningen
Drenthe
Utrecht
Lorraine
Burgundy
Champagne
Normandy
Brittany
Picardy
Guienne
Gascony
Languedoc
Provence
Dauphiny
Navarre
Aragon
Valencia
Murcia
Granada
Andalusia
Castile
Leon
Estremadura
Galicia
Asturias
Biscay
Basque Provinces
Corsica
Sardinia
(To Spain)
Balearic Isles
(To Spain)
Minorca
Majorca
Ivica
Sicily
(To Spain)
Naples
Rome
Florence
Tuscany
Papal States
Venice
Milan
Genoa
Savoy
Piedmont
Sardinia
(To Savoy)
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Luther's Disputation with Cardinal Cajetan.

In 1518 the Pope sent Cardinal Cajetan, or Cajetanus, into Germany as the papal legate, to examine Luther. Luther was summoned before Cajetan in the imperial Diet at Augsburg. Provided with a safe-conduct, Luther obeyed the summons, and declared his willingness to recant if it could be shown to him that his doctrines were contrary to the Holy Scriptures; but the cardinal refused to allow any discussion. Luther then offered to submit his doctrines to the four universities of Basle, Freiburg, Louvain and Paris; but Cajetan rejected the proposition with scorn. When Luther saw that he would not receive justice from the papal legate he drew up an appeal to the Pope, and affixed it to the door of Augsburg Cathedral, after which he fled from Augsburg by night and returned to Saxony. The Elector refused to banish him at the legate's demand.

Luther's Popularity.

The great majority of the German people were now on Luther's side, and his party was growing stronger every day. The most enlightened men of the time—poets, painters and scholars—united in doing honor to the great Reformer's piety and moral courage.

The Emperor Charles V. and Luther.

The death of the Emperor Maximilian I., in 1519, and the contest for the German imperial crown which followed, produced a lull in the conflict of religious opinions for several years. The imperial crown was offered to the Elector of Saxony, but he refused it and recommended the young King Charles I. of Spain, who was accordingly chosen and became the Emperor Charles V., as already noticed. Charles V. was very willing to help the Pope; but, as Luther was the friend of the Elector of Saxony, to whom the new Emperor was indebted for his German crown, Charles V. could not immediately offend the Elector by proceeding against the great Reformer.

Pope Leo X. and Luther.

In 1520 Pope Leo X. condemned Luther's writings to be burned, and threatened the great Reformer with excommunication unless he recanted within sixty days; and on December 11th of the same year (1520) Luther publicly burned the papal bull of condemnation and the volumes of the canon-law of the Roman Church in the public square of Wittenberg. The Pope punished Luther and his adherents by solemnly excommunicating them from the Church, but Luther replied by excommunicating the Pope. In 1521 Luther appeared before the Diet of Worms, at the command of the Emperor Charles V., who provided the Reformer with a safe-conduct. Luther's friends, fearing for his safety, had advised him not to go to Worms; but the daring Reformer replied: "I will go to Worms if there be as many devils there as tiles on the roofs of the houses."

Luther at the Diet of Worms.

His Triumphal Reception.

Luther's journey to Worms resembled a triumphal procession, as the people of many towns came a distance of many miles to meet him and to escort him. When he arrived at Worms he was escorted to his

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lodgings by a multitude of nobles and citizens. The next day he appeared before the assembled Diet. As he entered the great hall where the Diet was in session, George Frundsberg, the famous general, who afterward embraced his opinions, tapped him on the shoulder and said to him earnestly: "Little monk, little monk, thou art doing a more daring thing than I or any other general ever ventured on. But if thou art confident in thy cause, go on, in God's name, and be of good cheer, for He will not forsake thee."

His Refusal to Recant. Luther made an eloquent defense before the Diet, and when ordered to recant he refused unless convinced from Scripture that he was wrong, and concluded thus: "Here I stand; I cannot do otherwise; God help me—Amen!" Some of the Pope's adherents advised the Emperor to violate his solemn promise and mete out to Luther the fate of Huss; but Charles, true to his word, allowed Luther to depart, saying: "No, I will not blush like Sigismund at Constance!" The Emperor permitted Luther to depart from Worms, but warned him that thenceforth he must expect the treatment due a heretic. Charles V. then issued an edict condemning Luther as a heretic and punishing all who should shelter the Reformer, or print, sell, buy or read his books, by putting them under the ban of the Empire.

Condemnation of Luther.

Luther's Confinement at the Wartburg. Soon after Luther had departed from Worms he was seized by a company of masked horsemen sent by the Elector of Saxony to secure him from his enemies. Luther was at once stripped of his monkish dress, attired in military costume, with a false beard, mounted on a spare horse, and hurried away to the manorial castle of Wartburg, in Thuringia, which belonged to the Elector Frederick the Wise. The Reformer lived in that castle almost a year under the name of "Ritter George." It was generally believed that he had been murdered, and his friends were greatly alarmed for his safety, but soon received tidings setting at rest all fears.

Luther's Work at the Wartburg. During this period of seclusion in the Wartburg castle Luther passed his time in the most important of all his works—the translation of the Scriptures into the German language. He continued striking at the dogmas of the Roman Catholic Church, and his disciples and the press of Germany circulated his writings broadcast over the Empire. The art of printing aided vastly in spreading the tenets of the great Reformer, so that all classes were made acquainted with his doctrines.

Luther and the Devil. Luther believed strongly in the Devil. During his confinement in Wartburg castle he once threw his inkstand at the Devil's head, and the spot of ink is still shown on the wall. Said Luther: "Once, in our monastery at Wittenberg, I distinctly heard the Devil making a noise. As I sat down and began to study, the Devil came and made a noise behind my stove as though he would drag it away. At last,

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LUTHER, MELANCHTHON, POMERANUS AND CRUCIGER

From the Painting by P. A. Labouchère

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as he would not stop, I put my books by and went to bed. Another night I heard him overhead, but perceiving it was the Devil I paid no attention, and went to sleep again. This morning, when I awoke, the Devil said to me, 'Thou art a sinner.' I answered, 'Tell me something new, Devil, I knew that before.' He continued, 'What have you done with the monasteries?' I replied, 'What's that to thee? thy accursed worship goes on as ever.' The Devil sometimes casts me into such despair that I hardly know whether there is a God. He sets the law, sin and death before my eyes, compels me to ponder on this Trinity, and so torments me. He has sworn my death, but he will crack a hollow nut. When the Devil comes to me at night I give him these and the like answers, and say, 'Devil, I must now sleep, for this is God's command, to labor by day and sleep by night.' Then, if he charge me with being a sinner, I say, to spite him, 'Holy Satan! pray for me,' or 'Physician, heal thyself!' The Devil hates to be laughed at. He is of a melancholy disposition, and cheeerful music soon puts him to flight."

Dr. Carlstadt and the Anabaptists.

During Luther's confinement in the Wartburg castle one of his earliest disciples, Dr. Carlstadt, began a series of hasty innovations at Wittenberg, abolishing the mass, extending the cup to the laity, and exercising his zeal against images and ceremonies with an eagerness equal to that of the Iconoclasts of the Byzantine Empire almost a thousand years before. Dr. Carlstadt was soon joined by the so-called Zurickhauer prophets, who denounced the baptism of infants, insisted upon the rebaptism of adults and were thus called *Anabaptists*, and believed in direct inspiration from God. These radical Reformers destroyed the robes used in celebrating mass, and also destroyed images in some churches; and monks fled in great alarm from their cloisters.

Luther's Conservatism.

These hasty proceedings disturbed Luther's tranquillity of mind so that he could no longer remain at the castle of Wartburg. He therefore hastened to Wittenberg, preached against Dr. Carlstadt's innovations, pronouncing them over-hasty and uncharitable, and sought to bring about a more peaceful development of his views.

Philip Melanchthon.

Wittenberg now became the seat of German culture. In its famous university Philip Melanchthon of Bretten had already occupied the chair of Professor of Greek at the age of twenty-two, and he was Luther's co-worker in the Reformation. This Reformer was of a pensive disposition, prone to mystical effusions of tender piety, while his mind was richly stored with classic lore. He had been captivated by Luther's eloquence; and, as he was of a timid disposition, he became one of the great Reformer's most zealous disciples and devoted friends. By his learned Latin writings Melanchthon endeavored to secure the doctrines of the new Church on a scientific basis.

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Luther's Hymn and German Bible.

Luther won the hearts of the people by his German writings and hymns; one of which—*Eine feste Burg ist unser Gott*, "A strong fort is our God"—became the battle hymn of the Reformation. His translation of the Bible into German begun at the Wartburg castle was completed at Wittenberg, and was first published in 1534. It was generally considered a masterpiece of the German language and an exponent of the German spirit.

Spread of Lutheranism.

The Lutheran doctrines soon spread from Saxony into other German states. The Landgrave Philip of Hesse, the founder of the University of Marburg, zealously supported the Reformation; while the educated burghers of the German imperial cities likewise distinguished themselves by their zeal in the same cause. For a long time the German nobility had coveted the Church property, and now they had a favorable opportunity to seize control over it. It appeared for the time as if all Germany was being carried away by the Lutheran movement, and a national Church was rising.

Catholic Alarm.

The Catholic princes of Germany were naturally alarmed, and felt that all their power was needed to resist the new Church movement. The Archduke Ferdinand of Austria, the brother of the Emperor Charles V., concluded a treaty of alliance at Ratisbon, or Regensburg, with Duke Louis of Bavaria, Duke William and several bishops and archbishops of Southern Germany, for the preservation of the Roman Catholic Church.

Diet of Nuremberg.

At the Diet of the German Empire held at Nuremberg in 1524 most of the German princes favored the Reformation. The war which the Emperor Charles V., as King of Spain, was waging against King Francis I. of France in Italy, by diverting the Emperor's attention from Germany, gave the Lutherans additional power; and while the

Leagues of Ratisbon and Torgau.

Catholic princes of Germany were forming the League of Ratisbon the Lutherans held a meeting at Torgau in 1526, at which the Landgrave Philip of Hesse and the Elector John of Saxony entered into an alliance with several German cities to uphold the Reformation.

Lawless Knights.

The tranquillity of Germany was now disturbed by several causes. Notwithstanding the abolition of the right of private warfare, the country was still scoured by lawless knights and their men-at-arms, who robbed merchants and wealthy travelers, and even cut off the

Franz von Sickingen.

right hands of their captives. Franz von Sickingen, the greatest of the Rhenish knights, headed a league organized in hostility to the German princes. The knights professed an inveterate animosity toward the priests, and claimed Luther's support; but the great Reformer dreaded the propagation of his doctrines by the sword, and exhorted Franz von Sickingen and his followers to observe the peace of the Empire.

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His Overthrow and Death.

In spite of Luther's efforts, Franz von Sickingen and his supporters declared war against the Archbishop of Trèves, who was aided by the Landgrave Philip of Hesse and Frederick the Elector-Palatine. Franz von Sickingen was deprived of many of his castles, after which he was besieged in Landstuhl, the massive walls of which were reduced to ruins by artillery; and he was found mortally wounded in one of the inner apartments. The victorious Archbishop of Trèves, upon entering the vaulted chamber, exclaimed: "What have I done, that you should attack me and my poor people?" The Landgrave Philip of Hesse also asked: "Or I, that you should overrun my lands in my minority?" Franz von Sickingen replied: "I must answer to a greater Lord." When asked to confess his sins he answered: "I have already in my heart confessed to God." The princes knelt in prayer, while the chaplain administered the religious rites, and Franz von Sickingen's soul passed away. Twenty-seven castles belonging to him and his supporters, and most of the similar strongholds in Franconia, were dismantled or destroyed.

Peasant Revolt in Germany.

During the next three years (A. D. 1523–1525) Germany was distracted by a terrible revolt of the peasantry of Suabia, Franconia, Alsace, Lorraine and the Palatinate. The fanatical discourses of the fickle Anabaptist, Thomas Münzer, attracted crowds of idle and unprincipled people around him by proclaiming the principles of Communism and instigating these people to plunder churches, convents and castles. This leader talked of abolishing all temporal and spiritual power, and of establishing a heavenly kingdom in which all men should be equal, and in which every distinction between rich and poor, noble and peasant, should disappear.

Thomas Münzer.

Hans Muller and His Peasant Band.

Thomas Münzer's harangues confused the excited peasants, and very soon the populace from the Boden Lake to Dreisam followed the leadership of Hans Müller of Bulgenbach, who had formerly been a soldier. Attired in a red mantle and cap, Hans Müller marched from village to village, at the head of his followers. The chief banner was borne behind him on a carriage decorated with boughs and ribbons. The revolted peasants carried with them twleve articles, the importance of which they were ready to maintain with their swords. By these articles they demanded the liberty of hunting, fishing, cutting wood, etc.; the abolition of serfdom, tithes and soccage duties; the right of choosing their own preachers, and the free preaching of the Gospel.

The peasants of the Odenwald soon afterward rose in revolt, as did those on the Neckar and in Franconia, under the leadership of the audacious publican, George Metzler. These revolted peasants forced the Counts of Hohenlohe, Lowenstein, Wertheim and Gemmingen, the Superiors of the German Order in Mergentheim, and others, to accept

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Peasant Bands under George Metzler, Florian Geier and Gotz von Berlichingen.

the twelve articles and to concede to their subjects the privileges demanded. Any one venturing to resist them was put to death, as in the case of Count Helfenstein von Weinsberg. They marched through the land burning and devastating. They destroyed the castles and monasteries, and took a bloody revenge on their foes and oppressors. Under the leadership of gallant knights, like Florian Geier and Götz von Berlichingen of the Iron Hand, the revolted peasants marched into Wurzburg, while other bands of insurgents ravaged the lands of Baden.

Spread of the Peasant Revolt.

The peasant revolt soon spread over all of Suabia, Franconia, Alsace, Lorraine and the Palatinate. The spiritual and temporal princes of Germany became alarmed, and granted some of the exasperated peasants' demands. In Thuringia and the Hartz mountains the insurrection assumed more of a religious character. In Mühlhausen, Thomas Münzer had acquired great respect and the reputation of a prophet. He rejected Luther's moderate views, girded himself with the sword of Gideon, and desired to found a divine kingdom, with freedom and equality for all. The people were so excited by his preaching that they destroyed castles, convents and churches with the most barbarous fury.

Thomas Munzer's Excesses.

Luther's Stand against the Revolted Peasants.

In the beginning of the present revolt Luther attempted to restore peace. He represented to the German princes and nobles that they had been guilty of acts of violence, and he also exhorted the peasants to refrain from rebellion. But when the danger increased, when temporal and spiritual affairs were mingled together, he published a forcible tract "against the plundering and bloodthirsty peasants," calling upon the magistrates to attack them with the sword and to show them no mercy whatever.

Thomas Munzer's Defeat and Execution.

In response to Luther's call, the German nobles and knights took the field against the rebel peasants. The Elector John of Saxony, the Landgrave Philip of Hesse and others marched into Thuringia, and gained an easy victory by means of their artillery over the half-starved peasants under Thomas Münzer, who was executed at Mülhausen after being subjected to the most horrible tortures.

Pacification of Suabia and Franconia.

The insurrection was suppressed in Suabia by Truchsess of Waldburg, the Captain of the Suabian League, who then marched with the Elector-Palatine and the warlike Archbishop of Trèves against the insurgent bands in Franconia, which were besieging the strong castle of Wurzburg, where the disorderly and disorganized populace were again subdued by superior military skill and better arms. After a short resistance the rebels fled with precipitation, during which most of them were killed. Those who were taken prisoners were put to death, and the citizens of the Franconian towns who had sided with the insur-

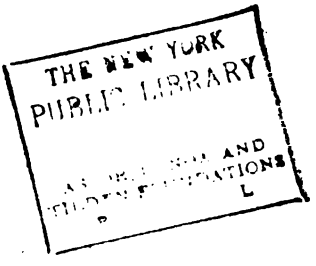
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LUCAS CRANACH INTRODUCES KATHARINA VON BORA TO LUTHER

From the Painting by O. von Richter

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gent peasantry were severely punished, many being beheaded by the ax of the executioner at Wurzburg.

Final Suppression of the Peasant Revolt.

The same scenes were enacted in Alsace, in the Palatinate and in Suabia, where the insurrection had continued longest. Order was finally restored by Truchsess of Waldburg and by the famous condottiere, George Frundsberg, who resorted to severe measures for the accomplishment of this result. The revolt was quelled only when one hundred thousand lives had been lost and many fertile fields reduced to desolation. In most places the peasants were again oppressed with all their former burdens, and in many localities the cry was loudly echoed: "If they have formerly been chastised with rods they shall now be scourged with scorpions."

Luther's Marriage.

The Reformation acquired additional strength in the midst of tumults and bloodshed, and Luther's energy increased with opposition. In 1524 he left the Augustinian cloisters, and in 1525 he married Catharine of Bora, who had formerly been a nun. He thereafter led a more domestic life, in the midst of a circle of princes, literary men and familiar friends. Neither poverty nor idleness affected his energy or zeal. He now devoted himself to framing a constitution for his Church and ordaining ministers for it. Having assailed the fundamental laws of the Roman Church, he was now obliged to substitute new laws in place of the old.

Innovations of John of Saxony and Philip of Hesse.

In a Diet of the German Empire assembled at Spires in 1526, presided over by the Archduke Ferdinand of Austria, the Emperor's brother, it was agreed to take no measures respecting religious affairs, but that each German state should regulate such matters at its own pleasure until a general council of the Church could be convened. The Elector John of Saxony, the Landgrave Philip of Hesse and other German princes, thus encouraged, proceeded to make great changes in the Church in their respective dominions. The mass was abolished, and the church services were celebrated in the German language; while new systems of church government were introduced, convents were suppressed, and the lands and revenues of the Church were restricted to ecclesiastical purposes. Preaching was made the main pursuit of the clergy.

Lutheran Organization.

The Landgrave Philip of Hesse called a synod, which convened in October, 1526, and gave Lutheranism the definitive organization which it has ever since preserved. The duty of visiting all the churches of Saxony devolved upon Melanchthon, who was as active as Luther. The combined efforts of these two active and able men gave the Reformation such a mighty impulse that the Catholic princes of Germany were seriously alarmed. The printed copies of the formula which Melanchthon had composed, and the two Catechisms which Luther had

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prepared, disseminated the Reformed doctrines among both old and young.

Action of the Diet of Spires.

The Catholic German princes now combined to offer a more effectual resistance to the progress of the Reformation. In another imperial Diet convened at Spires in 1529, over which the Archduke Ferdinand of Austria also presided, the Catholic princes were in a majority. This Diet passed a decree "that the edicts of Worms should be observed in all the states in which they had been received; that the others should be free to continue in the new doctrines until the next general council. No one was allowed to preach in public against the mass or to hinder its celebration."

The Protestation.

This decree aroused the entire Lutheran party in the Diet, and the Lutheran princes and cities unanimously protested against this attack on the freedom of conscience and evangelical doctrine. This solemn *Protest*, duly signed by the Lutheran princes in the Diet, was sent to the Emperor Charles V.; and this circumstance gave the Lutherans the name of *Protestants*—a name ever since applied to all Christians outside of the Roman Catholic and Greek Churches.

Protesting Princes.

These protesting princes at Spires were the Elector John of Saxony; the Landgrave Philip of Hesse; the Dukes of Grubenhagen, Celle and Mecklenburg; Prince Wolfgang of Anhalt; two Counts of Mansfeld; the Margrave George of Brandenburg; and the cities of Magdeburg, Strassburg, Nuremberg, Ulm, Constance, Reutlingen, Windsheim, Memmingen, Lindau, Kempten, Heilbronn, Issny, Weissenburg, Nördlingen and St. Gallen.

Luther's Opposition to Warlike Means.

The Lutheran deputation met with a very cold reception from the Emperor Charles V., who refused to receive their protest. The protesting princes and cities would immediately have concluded a league for their mutual defense had not Luther and the other evangelical theologians forbidden it on the ground that "a magnaminous scrupulousness bade them reject the defense of the Word of God by worldly weapons."

Diet of Augsburg.

Having driven the French out of Italy, and ended his second war with Francis I. of France by the Peace of Cambray in 1529, the Emperor Charles V. returned to Germany in 1530, and convened a Diet of the Empire at Augsburg the same year for the twofold purpose of suppressing the Reformation and adopting measures for the defeat of the Turks, whose invasions of Hungary and Austria had created serious alarm.

Confession of Augsburg.

In this splendid imperial Diet at Augsburg, in 1530, the Lutheran princes who had protested in the Diet at Spires the preceding year presented the articles of their creed known as the *Confession of Augsburg*, which had been drawn up by the learned and peaceable Philip

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Melanchthon in both the German and Latin languages, and which had been approved by Luther. In this famous document the protesting princes claimed that they did not wish to found a new Church, but merely to reform and purify the old one.

Catholic Refutation and Melanchthon's Apology.

After reading this document the Diet endeavored to effect a union of discordant elements in the Church by a conference of the men of moderate tempers selected by both parties. The Catholic theologians —Eck, Cochlaus, Wimpana, Faber and others—drew up a *Refutation* of the Confession of Augsburg, as it was called; and this was read to the assembled Diet. Melanchthon replied to the Catholic Refutation in a document of his own, called his *Apology*. The Emperor Charles V. afterward addressed the Diet, expressing his desire for the unity of the Church, and stating that otherwise he should be obliged to act in accordance with his oath as protector of the Holy Catholic Church.

Luther's Opposition.

The Diet of Augsburg was without results, as no reconciliation of opposing opinions could be effected, because Luther, who remained at Coburg during the sessions of the Diet, opposed the concessions required from the Reformed party. The protesting princes and the representatives of the principal imperial towns rejected the decisions of the Diet, and retired from Augsburg. The Emperor Charles V. declared that they must decide before the 15th of April upon the course that they would pursue. He called on the German princes to sustain him, declaring that he was bound by his oath and by his conscience.

The Emperor's Edict.

Its Provisions.

The Emperor's edict condemned the Lutheran heresy, and commanded all who had accepted it to return to their allegiance to the Holy Catholic Church. All the Church property that had been seized was to be restored, and the suppressed convents were to be reopened. All who disobeyed the Emperor's mandate were subject to outlawry.

League of Schmalkald.

The Emperor's decree did not intimidate the Lutherans the least; and the Elector John of Saxony, the Landgrave Philip of Hesse and the other protesting princes met at Schmalkald, in the Thuringian forest, in March, 1531, and concluded a league, defensive and offensive, for six years. The Catholic German princes dreaded the effect of a civil and religious war, as the Empire was constantly menaced by Turkish invasions; and Charles V. was obliged to conclude the Peace of Nuremberg with the League of Schmalkald in 1532.

Coronation of Ferdinand of Austria.

Fearing that a Protestant successor to Charles V. on the imperial throne of Germany would be chosen, the Catholic party in the Empire resolved to secure a Catholic successor at once; and the Catholic German princes accordingly elected the Emperor's brother, the Archduke Ferdinand of Austria, who was crowned at Aix la Chapelle in 1531.

The Protestant Church of Germany was even already divided. Ulrich Zwingli, a priest of Glarus, born in 1484, was the leader of the

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Ulrich Zwingli and the Reformation in Switzerland.

Reformation in Switzerland. He was a classically-educated priest, of republican principles. As Canon of Zurich he exerted himself zealously against the doctrine of indulgences, as preached by Samson, a Franciscan monk. He labored against all kinds of abuses, and against the Swiss custom of engaging as mercenaries in foreign military service.

Zwingli's Reforms.

Ulrich Zwingli was a man of practical understanding, without Luther's depth of mind or disposition, and did not concern himself with the reform of doctrine or creed, but with the improvement of life and morals. He engaged in the Reformation with little ceremony, as he desired to restore primitive Christianity in its simplest form. As he was agreed with the Chief Council of Zurich, he set about a thorough reform of ecclesiastical doctrine and practice; banished all images, crosses, candles, altars and organs from the churches; and administered the Lord's Supper after the manner of the early Christian love-feasts, the communicants receiving the bread and wine while sitting.

His Controversy with Luther about Transubstantiation.

Zwingli engaged in an irreconcilable controversy with Luther concerning transubstantiation. Zwingli recognized nothing but a token of remembrance and fellowship in that ceremony, and explained the words "this is my body" as meaning "this represents my body." Luther would not receive these words in such a sense, but maintained that Christ's blood and body were present in the bread and wine administered in the holy sacrament. The Landgrave Philip of Hesse sought to effect a reconciliation between the two sincere Reformers by means of a disputation between them at Marburg. Luther considered Zwingli's view a denial of Christ, and when Zwingli offered his brotherly hand with tears Luther drew back his own hand, thus refusing to receive the noble-hearted Zwingli as a brother. As Luther opposed any union with those German towns which had adopted Zwingli's doctrines, those towns presented their own confession of faith to the Diet of Augsburg.

Catholic and Protestant Cantons.

Zwingli's appearance in Switzerland was followed by disturbances similar to those which followed Luther's appearance in Germany. The Church was reformed according to Zwingli's principles in Zurich, Basle, Berne, Schaffhausen, the Rhinethal and other cantons. The Catholics contended with the Zwinglians in Appenzell, the Grisons, St. Gall, Glarus and other cantons. In Zug, and in the four forest cantons —Uri, Schwyz, Unterwalden and Lucerne—the Catholic faith maintained its ascendency, because of the influence of the monks and clergy over the simple populace, and because the custom of engaging in foreign military service, which formed the chief means of support among these people, was opposed by the Reformers.

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Agitation in Switzerland.

The five Catholic cantons concluded an alliance with Austria, and vigorously and sternly suppressed every innovation; while Berne and Zurich aided the Reformation in the frontier towns with bigoted zeal and violence. In this agitated condition of Switzerland a civil and religious war was inevitable, especially as Zwingli meditated such a revolution as would give the political supremacy in the Republic to the two most powerful cantons, Berne and Zurich.

Civil War of Religion in Switzerland.

Mutual revilings of the clergy, which proceeded with perfect immunity from punishment, increased the public irritation and provoked hostilities. Berne and Zurich blockaded the public roads, thus preventing the transportation of goods and the necessaries of life—a proceeding which exasperated the Catholic cantons. The Catholics made secret preparations and attacked the people of Zurich unawares.

Battle of Kappel.

The Zurichers, surprised and irresolute, and forsaken by the Bernese, sent a force of two thousand men against double that number of Catholics, but were totally defeated in the bloody battle of Kappel, in 1531, in which Zwingli was slain.

Death of Zwingli.

The brave Zwingli had accompanied his followers as field preacher, and fell beside the banner of the city; and along with him perished the staunchest friends of the Reformation in Switzerland. His dead body was subjected to the insults of his indignant foes, after which it was burned and the ashes scattered to the winds.

Catholic Victory.

The Catholic triumph restored the Roman Church in many places in Switzerland that had seemed to favor the Reformation, thus producing the religious divisions that have prevailed in the Swiss Republic ever since.

SECTION IV.—EMPEROR CHARLES V. AND WAR OF RELIGION IN GERMANY (A. D. 1531–1558).

League of Schmalkald.

As the Emperor Charles V., after the Peace of Cambray, in 1529, seemed determined to suppress the religious Reformation in his dominions, the Protestant princes of Germany, with the Elector of Saxony and the Landgrave of Hesse at their head, united in 1531 for their own protection, and formed an alliance, known as the *League of Schmalkald*, which was joined by the Kings of England, France, Denmark and Sweden.

Effect of the Turkish Invasions.

The Emperor of Germany was obliged to avoid hostilities with his Protestant subjects at this time, in consequence of the formidable invasions of the Austrian territories by the Turks, who were then the most powerful people in Europe. Thus these constant Turkish invasions were highly favorable to the cause of the Reformation, as the Protestants of Germany refused to assist the Emperor in driving back

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the Turks, so long as the sword of Catholic vengeance was raised over their heads. The plans of Charles V. for the extermination of heresy were thus frustrated, and he found himself obliged to conclude with the League of Schmalkald the Peace of Nuremberg, in 1532, thus postponing the civil war of religion in Germany for fourteen years.

Peace of Nuremberg.

The Peace of Nuremberg, which was confirmed by the German imperial Diet at Ratisbon, granted full liberty to preach and publish the doctrines of the Augsburg Confession. By this treaty both parties agreed to refrain from hostilities until a Council of the Church should be assembled to settle the division which thus distracted Christendom. Pope Clement VII. had been vehemently urged to convene such a Council. In the meantime the law proceedings were to cease. While the treaty bound the Protestants, it gave them no assurance for the future; but it afforded great opportunities for the diffusion of the Gospel throughout every portion of Germany.

Duke Ulrich of Wurtemberg.

The Lutheran form of worship was introduced into the Duchy of Wurtemberg. Duke Ulrich of Wurtemberg, a hot-tempered and cruel prince, had with his own hand murdered Hans von Hutten, a knight of his court, from motives of jealousy. He had so ill treated his wife that she fled from him, and he had conquered the imperial city of Reutlingen. He was at length outlawed for disturbing the peace of the country, and was driven from his land and his vassals by the Suabian League.

Lutheranism in Wurtemberg.

For fourteen years Ulrich was forced to lead a wandering life in exile from his dukedom, which meanwhile came under the dominion of Austria. At length the Landgrave Philip of Hesse resolved to restore Wurtemberg to its exiled duke, who was then living at his court. Philip accordingly led a well-equipped army into Suabia, defeated the Austrian governor at Laufen, on the Neckar, and reëstablished Ulrich in the government of his duchy. Ulrich was joyfully welcomed by his subjects, who had forgotten his former tyranny, and who were easily induced to accept the Lutheran doctrines, which Ulrich had embraced during his exile, and which he now caused to be disseminated by Brenz and Schnepf. The Lutheran Church was firmly established in the Duchy of Wurtemberg, and the University of Tübingen was one of the most celebrated Lutheran seats of learning.

The Anabaptists.

As we have seen, there were extremists in the new Church. Thomas Münzer's death had not suppressed the doctrines of the Anabaptists, who regarded their own passions as divine inspirations. In spite of the opposition of the leaders of the Reformation, and the discouragement given by all the lawful magistrates, the Anabaptists would make their appearance at various places in Germany. These fanatical doctrines displayed themselves in the most formidable manner in Münster,

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where the Reformation had made violent headway and driven the bishop and canons into exile.

Their Communistic Community at Munster.

It was soon apparent that Rottman, an influential preacher of the Reformation at Münster, was infected with Anabaptist ideas. He was at length aided by Jan Matthys and his countryman and disciple, the tailor, John Bockhold, called John of Leyden; whereupon the Anabaptists acquired such ascendency at Münster that they soon had possession of all the city offices, drove all such of the inhabitants as refused to accept their doctrines out of the city in the midst of winter, and divided their property among themselves. They then established a religious commonwealth in which Jan Matthys had absolute power, introduced the communistic plan of a community of goods, and defended the city against the besieging force of the Bishop of Münster.

Their Fanaticism.

The fanaticism of the Anabaptists of Münster was heightened when Jan Matthys lost his life in a sally against the besiegers, when John of Leyden was placed at the head of the new commonwealth. John of Leyden selected twelve elders from the most violent of the fanatics, and entrusted them with the government of the city of Münster. Among these, Knipperdoling, who was burgomaster and executioner, acted the most conspicuous part. He introduced the practice of polygamy, and put to death without mercy all who denounced this outrage on Christian morality.

Action of John of Leyden.

When the fanaticism of the Anabaptists of Münster had reached its height, John of Leyden assumed the title of "King of the New Israel," which he claimed by Divine inspiration. This "tailor king" had for his insignia a crown and a globe suspended by a golden chain. With this insignia, and magnificently attired, he set up the "Chair of David" in the market-place of Münster, where he sat for the administration of justice. He introduced a government in which tyranny and fanaticism were mingled, and in which spiritual pride and carnal lust were associated in the most repulsive manner.

Overthrow of the Anabaptists.

The Anabaptists for a long time made a courageous and successful resistance to the attacks of their imperfectly-armed foes. They still resolutely maintained their defense when the besieging army of the Bishop of Münster had been reinforced by imperial troops, and when the beleaguered city began to suffer the horrors of famine. They resisted with the courage of desperation even when the enemy were within the walls of the city. Rottman was slain while fighting. John of Leyden and Knipperdoling were put to death by torture, and their dead bodies were suspended in iron cages on the tower; while many were executed, and the rest were driven into exile. The bishop, the canons and the nobility returned; and Roman Catholicism, which was then reëstablished in all its rigor, has ever since prevailed in Münster.

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Menno Simon and the Mennonites.

A few decades later the Anabaptists experienced a complete reformation of their doctrines and discipline under the direction and leadership of Menno Simon; and in that condition, under the name of *Mennonites*, they have continued to the present day, and have been distinguished for their simplicity of dress and manners, and for their rejection of a separate priesthood, of infant baptism, of oaths, of military service and the use of law. Under Menno Simon's direction they abandoned those principles of an earlier period which were in direct antagonism to Christian morality and the public welfare. In their old ancestral homes their descendants lead a quiet life as tenant farmers and peasants. Many are now living in the United States of America.

Protestant Princes of Germany.

We have seen that the leading Protestant princes of Germany were the Elector John the Steadfast of Saxony and the Landgrave Philip of Hesse. The Elector John the Steadfast, who succeeded his father Frederick the Wise in 1525, died in 1532, and was succeeded by his son John Frederick. The Duke of Cleves was also one of the greatest of the Protestant princes of Germany; and inherited Guelders and Zutphen, in the Netherlands, through the extinction of the family of Egmont, as well as his father's duchy of Cleves and his mother's inheritance of Berg, Jülich and Ravensberg. His estates lay along the Rhine, from Cologne, in Germany, to the vicinity of Utrecht, in the Netherlands, and from the Werre to the Meuse. At length Lutheranism was established in the Duchy of Saxony and in the Electorate of Brandenburg, after the death of their last Catholic princes.

Lutheranism in Brandenburg.

The Margrave Albert of Brandenburg had become a Lutheran in the early part of the Reformation; but the *Electoral* branch of the Brandenburg House of Hohenzollern held fast to Roman Catholicism until after the death of the Elector Joachim I., in 1535. His son and successor, Joachim II., received the Eucharist under both Catholic and Lutheran forms at Spandau in 1539; whereupon the Electorate of Brandenburg embraced the Lutheran doctrine.

Lutheranism in the Two Saxonies.

The *Electorate* of Saxony, under the elder, or Ernestine branch of the Saxon dynasty, had been the birthplace and early stronghold of the Reformation; but the *Duchy* of Saxony, under the younger, or Albertine branch of the same dynasty, had adhered to the Roman Church until after the death of Duke George, in 1539. His brother and successor, Henry the Pious, who was devoted to the Reformation, as was also his son Maurice, established the Lutheran worship in Meissen, Dresden and Leipsic.

Protestantism in the North of Germany.

The conversion of the Duchy of Saxony and the Electorate of Brandenburg to the Lutheran faith sealed the fate of the Roman Catholic Church in the whole North of Germany, and the Protestant worship now prevailed from the Rhine to the Baltic. Conferences

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between Roman and Protestant divines were held at Frankfort-on-the-Main in 1540, and before the German imperial Diet at Ratisbon in 1541, which brought the two religious parties nearer to agreement, but did not lead to peace.

Its Final Triumph in Brunswick.

Henry of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel, a cruel and profligate prince, alone adhered to the Roman Church, more from his animosity to the Landgrave Philip of Hesse, the former friend of his youth, than from conviction; but the Protestant faith triumphed even in Wolfenbüttel, when Henry was overpowered by Hessian and Saxon troops and carried into captivity, after a fierce controversy, alike deterimental to the dignity of princes and to human nature.

Lutheranism in the Palatinate.

Otho Heinrich ordered Osiander, the Nuremberger preacher, to teach the Lutheran doctrines in the Upper Palatinate; and a few weeks before Luther's death the Eucharist was administered in both the Lutheran and Catholic forms in the Palatinate of the Rhine, after the congregation which assembled to hear mass in the Church of the Holy Ghost on January 3, 1546, had sung the Lutheran hymn: "Salvation hath visited us."

In Baden-Durlach, Cologne and Cleves.

Baden-Durlach likewise accepted the Reformed confession. Archbishop Hermann, Elector of Cologne, proposed to his Estates a moderate plan of reformation; and the Duke of Cleves seemed disposed to join the League of Schmalkald. The Roman Catholic Church now appeared doomed in Germany if the progress of the Reformation was not forcibly checked. The Emperor Charles V. was convinced that neither imperial Diets nor religious discussions could effect a restoration of the unity of the Church.

Council of Trent Summoned.

Importuned by the Emperor Charles V., Pope Paul III. summoned a Council of the Church to meet at Trent, in the Tyrol, for the purpose of effecting a reconciliation of opposing opinions and restoring the unity of the Church. The Protestants, foreseeing that their doctrines would be condemned in a Council held under the auspices of the Pope, rejected it as partial, and demanded, in its stead, a general synod of the Church of Germany. The Council, however, assembled at Trent, in December, 1545. Dr. Martin Luther died in his native city, Eisleben, in Saxony, on the 18th of February, 1546.

Luther's Death.

Beginning of the Religious War of Schmalkald.

The very first decision of the Council of Trent rendered a reconciliation of opposing opinions hopeless. The Emperor, having concluded a disgraceful peace with Sultan Solyman the Magnificent, now determined to crush the Reformation by force of arms; and in the year 1546 the Religious War of Schmalkald broke out between Charles V. and his Protestant German subjects.

Preparations of Charles V.

The Emperor had for some time been secretly preparing for war by mustering one army in Italy, another in Austria and a third in

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the Netherlands. Pope Paul III. aided him by contributions of troops and money, and by authorizing the sale of monastic property in Spain and a tax upon the clergy in the same kingdom.

Preparations of the League of Schmalkald.

Though late in discerning the object of the Emperor's preparations, the League of Schmalkald determined to defend the Protestant cause, and promptly put its forces in the field under the command of the Elector John Frederick of Saxony and the Landgrave Philip of Hesse. The Lutheran cities of Germany also raised a large army, and placed it under the command of Sebastian Schärtlin, one of the ablest generals of his time.

Protestant German Princes Outlawed.

Charles V. first broke his coronation-oath by bringing foreign troops into Germany, and then violated the imperial constitution by placing the leaders of the Schmalkald forces and their followers under the ban of the Empire—the highest penalty of treason. This sentence, which could not be legally published without the consent of the Imperial Diet, declared the Protestant princes to be rebels and outlaws, absolved their subjects from allegiance and confiscated all their territories.

Opening of Hostilities.

The princes of the League of Schmalkald replied to the Emperor's sentence of outlawry by a declaration of war, in which they renounced all allegiance to "Charles of Ghent, pretended Emperor." The army of the Lutheran city of Strassburg hastened to occupy the forts of Ehrenberg and Kufstein, to prevent the Pope's forces from entering Bavaria through the passes of the Tyrol. Thus the Protestant forces were promptly in the field, and they were superior to the Emperor's armies. Both armies were in motion in the summer of 1546, but the first campaign was indecisive.

Movements of Charles V.

The hesitation and lack of vigor on the part of the Protestant princes enabled the Emperor to bring his auxiliaries from Italy and to move from his precarious situation at Ratisbon to a more secure position at Ingolstadt, where he was joined by his troops from the Netherlands, thus enabling him to assume the offensive. He marched into Suabia and was followed thither by the Schmalkald army.

Defection of Duke Maurice of Saxony.

All the efforts of the Protestant princes of Germany were rendered fruitless by the perfidy of one of their own number—Duke Maurice of Saxony. This shrewd young prince had become the Duke of Albertine Saxony upon the death of his father, Henry the Pious, in 1541. Although a Lutheran in belief, Maurice had long withdrawn from the League of Schmalkald, because he envied and hated his cousin John Frederick, the Elector of Ernestine Saxony. Although the Landgrave Philip of Hesse was his father-in-law, Maurice formed a secret alliance with the Emperor Charles V., who had in the meantime reposed such confidence in the perfidious prince that he exempted him from the ban of the Empire.

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His Seizure of Electoral Saxony.

The Lutheran princes had so little suspicion of the treachery of Maurice that his cousin, the Elector John Frederick, had during his absence entrusted him with the defense and administration of the Electorate of Saxony; but as soon as Maurice had been won over by the Emperor's flatteries and promises he betrayed his trust, and seized the Saxon Electorate for himself, with the aid of an army of Bohemians and Hungarians under the Emperor's brother Ferdinand, Archduke of Austria and King of Bohemia and Hungary.

Ruin of the Protestant Cause.

The unexpected defection of Maurice of Saxony utterly ruined the Protestant cause in Germany, and the League of Schmalkald was at the Emperor's mercy. Their common treasury was exhausted; many of their troops deserted for want of pay, and their army was obliged to retreat from Southern Germany.

Submission of Imperial Cities.

The triumphant Emperor now required the princes and cities of Southern Germany to submit to the imperial authority and to desert the League of Schmalkald, and the terrified imperial cities complied. Ulm, Heilbronn, Esslingen, Reutlingen, Augsburg, Frankfort, Strassburg and other cities surrendered their artillery, and obtained peace from the Emperor by the payment of heavy fines.

Submission of Protestant Princes.

The old Duke Ulrich of Würtemberg humbled himself to the Emperor, paid his contributions of war and surrendered his most important fortresses to the imperial troops. The old Archbishop Hermann, Elector of Cologne, anathematized by the Pope, theatened by Spanish troops and finally abandoned by his Estates, relinquished his office in favor of a Catholic, who soon restored the Roman worship in place of Lutheranism. By the spring of 1547 all of Southern Germany was reduced to submission to the Emperor without a battle having been fought.

John Frederick's Conquest of the Saxonies.

In the meantime victory had attended the Protestant arms in Northern Germany, where the Elector John Frederick had recovered his confiscated Electorate of Ernestine Saxony by repulsing and dispersing the army of Maurice, after which he overran and conquered Maurice's Duchy of Albertine Saxony as far as Dresden and Leipsic, being everywhere received with acclamations by the population, who were so unanimously on the Protestant side and against their perfidious duke that the apostate Maurice dared not levy an army among his own subjects.

Ferdinand of Austria and John Frederick of Saxony.

Ferdinand of Austria, King of Hungary and Bohemia, met with as little success in raising an army among the Bohemians, whom he offended by his efforts to change the elective Kingdom of Bohemia into a hereditary dominion for the Austrian House of Hapsburg. The Elector John Frederick might have raised a considerable army in both the Saxonies, bidden defiance to the whole Catholic power and made

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himself Emperor of Protestant Germany, if his energy and enterprise had been equal to his many virtues and to his general excellence of character.

Charles V. and John Frederick.

The defeated Maurice, in his desperate extremity, invoked the Emperor's aid. Charles V. marched into Bavaria, although suffering from the gout, and effected a junction with the forces under Maurice and Ferdinand; after which he hastened into Saxony and came up with the Elector John Frederick, who was posted on the Elbe at Mühlberg, with six thousand troops. The Emperor with his army, twenty-seven thousand strong, crossed the Elbe almost before the eyes of the astonished Elector, who imagined the Emperor to be many miles distant. John Frederick's cavalry was surprised while engaged in a retreat, on a Sunday morning in April, 1547, while the Elector was attending Divine worship; and the Emperor Charles V. won a victory in the battle of Mühlberg, where the Elector John Frederick was wounded in the face and taken prisoner.

Battle of Muhlberg.

John Frederick's Overthrow and Captivity.

With the capitulation of Wittenberg, the capital of the Saxon Electorate, all of John Frederick's electoral and princely rights were surrendered to the Emperor; but the vanquished Elector's possessions, except a few towns, were divided between his cousin, Duke Maurice, and the Emperor's brother, Ferdinand of Austria, King of Bohemia and Hungary. John Frederick remained in captivity at the Emperor's court, and his children became pensioners of their unfaithful kinsman.

John Frederick Compelled to Surrender Saxony to Maurice.

In captivity John Frederick manifested the serenity of soul resulting from a good conscience and a firm trust in God. With the greatest composure he heard the sentence of death that the Emperor had pronounced against him, and without even interrupting the game of chess in which he was engaged. But Charles V. did not venture to carry this terrible sentence into execution. He changed the punishment to imprisonment for life, upon condition that John Frederick should surrender his fortresses to the Emperor and relinquish his electoral dignity and his dominions to Maurice, who was solemnly invested with his new dignity by the Emperor himself, while the deposed and captive John Frederick looked on the ceremony from the windows of his prison. Thus the Electorate of Saxony was transferred from the Ernestine to the Albertine branch of the Saxon dynasty, remaining thenceforth in the latter's possession.

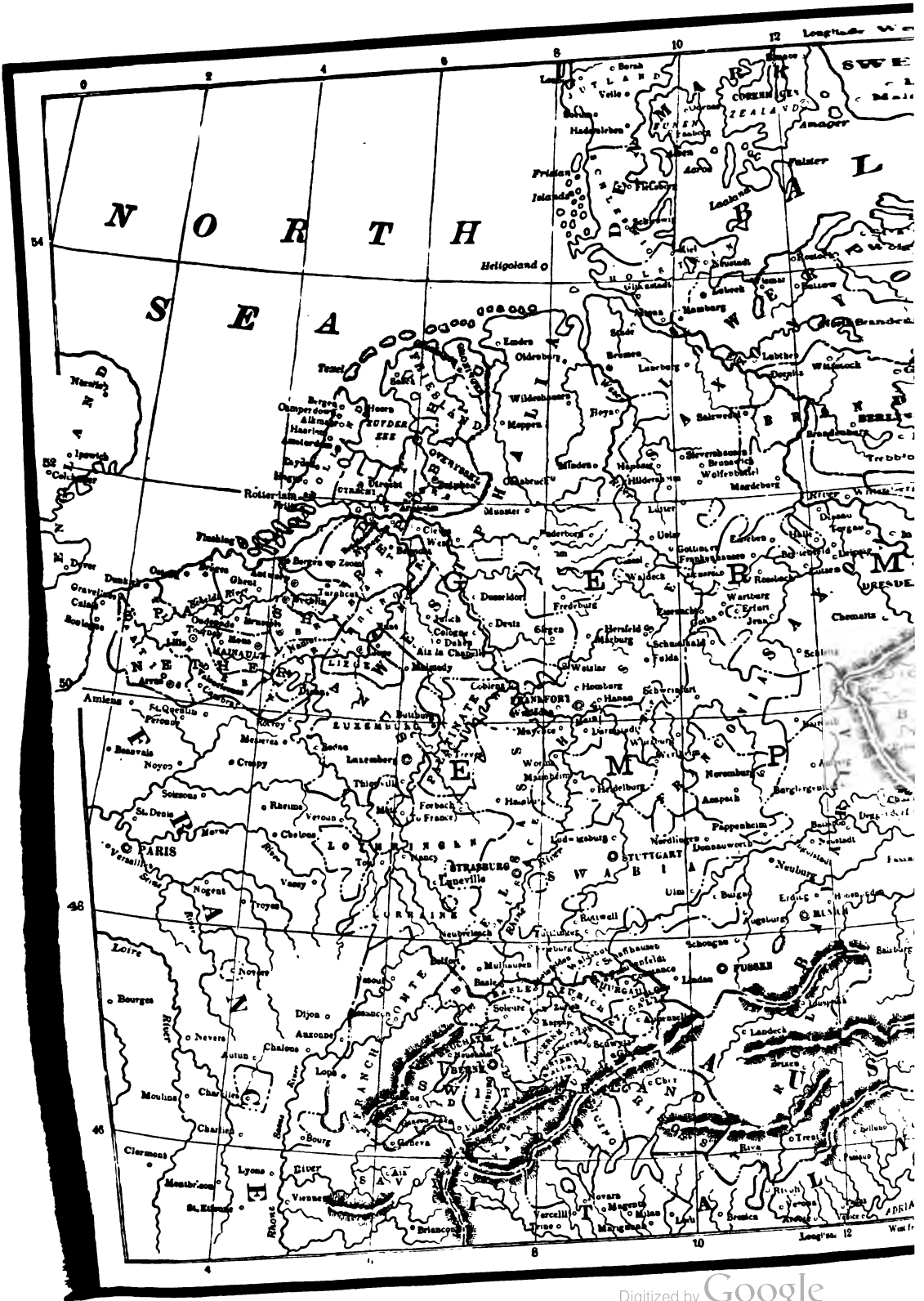
Imperial Defeats and Victories.

During the spring of 1547 the imperial army under Duke Eric of Brunswick was forced to raise the siege of Bremen, and was defeated near Drachenburg; but the arms of the victorious Protestants were paralyzed by the news of the capitulation of Wittenberg, and all of Northern Germany except Magdeburg was soon reduced to submission to the Emperor.

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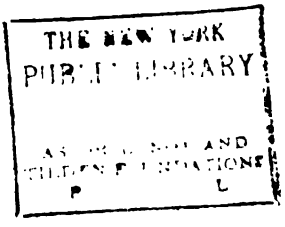
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Aschaffenburg
Wurtzburg
Bamberg
Nuremberg
Ratisbon
Amberg
Ingolstadt
Augsburg
Ulm
Memmingen
Kempten
Lindau
Constance
Schaffhausen
Zurich
Coire
Chur
Bregenz
Innspruck
Landeck
Bruneck
Brixen
Botzen



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Charles V. next proceeded to punish the Landgrave Philip of Hesse. The Electors Maurice of Saxony and Joachim II. of Brandenburg interceded for the unfortunate prince, and obtained from the Emperor the assurance "that if he would make an unconditional surrender, apologize for his proceedings and deliver up his castles, he should be punished neither with death nor with perpetual imprisonment." These conditions were subsequently modified during a personal interview, and Maurice of Saxony and Joachim II. of Brandenburg assured the Landgrave Philip of the safety of his person and possessions.

Landgrave Philip of Hesse.

Relying on this assurance and provided with a safe-conduct, Philip of Hesse appeared before the Emperor Charles V. at Halle, begged pardon on his knees in the presence of the brilliant assembly of courtiers, promising to surrender his artillery, demolish all his fortresses but one, release the prisoners whom he had taken and pay a considerable fine. Notwithstanding his humiliating submission, the terms of the treaty were evaded, and the Landgrave Philip was made a prisoner by the most shameful treachery. Being invited to supper with the Duke of Alva, the commander of the Spanish auxiliaries in the Emperor's service, Philip went to the Castle of Halle, where he was detained as a prisoner in spite of all protestations.

His Humiliating Submission.

His Treacherous Captivity.

Charles V. could not deny himself the triumph of having the two leading Protestant princes of the Empire in his power. He soon afterward retired from Saxony, taking his two illustrious captives with him. The captivity of the two great Protestant princes of Germany only increased the complaints of the more honest portion of the German nation, and led to a coldness between Maurice of Saxony and the Emperor; but it contributed to overawe resistance in Bohemia, where the Protestant army was soon dispersed. The Bohemian nobles hastened to submit to King Ferdinand, and Prague itself surrendered after a short resistance. The Protestant rebellion in Bohemia resulted in a firmer establishment of the power of the Austrian House of Hapsburg in that kingdom and throughout the German Empire.

Effect of the Triumph of Charles V.

Protestant Submission in Bohemia.

Pope Paul III. was alarmed at the Emperor's growing power too late, and had recalled the papal auxiliaries from Germany. By favoring the conspiracy of Fiesco at Genoa, the Pope endeavored to place that republic under French instead of imperial influence; but the death of the daring conspirator Fiesco, who sought to usurp the office of Doge, frustrated the Pope's design, and the Doria family remained in power in Genoa.

Pope Paul III. and the Plot of Fiesco in Genoa.

The dissension between the Pope and the Emperor was still more embittered by the murder of the Duke of Parma, a son of Pope Paul III. and an Italian tyrant of the most odious type. Instead of punishing this crime, Charles V. appeared to almost assume responsibility for

Murder of the Duke of Parma.

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it by occupying Placentia, the scene of the murder, with imperial troops, and refusing to invest the murdered duke's son, who was his own son-in-law, with the Duchy of Parma.

Councils of Trent and Bologna.

The Council of Trent assembled on the 13th of December, 1545. The division in the Church was made greater than before; and the Pope, suspecting the Emperor of a design to limit the papal power, removed the Council to Bologna, in Italy; but Charles V. forbade the clergy to leave Trent. The Spanish and Neapolitan prelates obeyed the Emperor by remaining at Trent, while the other thirty-four passed into Italy; and the two Councils, instead of restoring peace and unity to Christendom, began a war of words between each other.

Augsburg Interim.

For the purpose of bringing about a restoration of the unity of the Church, the Emperor Charles V. published an edict, which set forth how matters should be conducted until the termination of the Council of Trent. Accordingly three divines, representing respectively the Old Catholic, the New Catholic and the Lutheran parties, were appointed to draw up a Confession of Faith which should reconcile all religious controversies, at least until a more generally accepted Council than those of Trent and Bologna could be convened. This decree, which was called the *Augsburg Interim*, was at first designed for both religious parties, but was afterwards restricted to the Protestants. It permitted to the Lutherans the use of the cup and the marriage of the priests, and indefinite modes of expression were used to approach the Protestant opinions on the doctrines of justification, the mass, etc.; but the old usages were retained in the celebration of Divine worship and in the ceremonies.

Catholic and Protestant Opposition to the Interim.

In striving to please all parties Charles V. pleased none; and the Augsburg Interim encountered equally violent opposition from the Pope at Rome, from the Calvinists at Geneva and from the Lutherans at Magdeburg. Nevertheless the Emperor submitted it to the German imperial Diet at Augsburg, in May, 1548, for acceptance without discussion. The Archbishop-Elector of Mayence immediately arose and thanked the Emperor for his efforts to restore peace to the Church, and declared the Interim to be fully approved by the Diet. This unauthorized assumption passed unchallenged on that occasion; but the Elector Maurice of Saxony and his deposed cousin John Frederick soon entered protests, as did also several imperial cities.

Flight of Lutheran Preachers.

The Protestant preachers could not be induced to accept a religion that was offensive to their consciences, by being deprived of their offices, their property or their freedom. The preachers who were thus driven from their posts fled from their homes and firesides by secret paths to the North of Germany, where the Augsburg Interim was wholly rejected. Thus almost four hundred Lutheran preachers

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became exiles, and most of them found refuge at Magdeburg, which was under the ban of the Empire, as was also Constance, which was the chief center of opposition to the Interim in the South.

Capture of Constance.

The Emperor's brother, Ferdinand of Austria, Bohemia and Hungary, attacked and captured Constance, and annexed it to the dominions of the Austrian House of Hapsburg, in defiance of its ancient privileges.

Defense of Magdeburg.

Magdeburg sustained a longer resistance and became the stronghold of Lutheranism.

Flight of Lutheran Preachers from Saxony.

Many Lutheran preachers also fled from their homes in Saxony, the cradle of the Reformation, because of their dislike to the Leipsic Interim, which was composed by Melanchthon, who thereby subjected himself to the imputation of weakness and cowardice. These also found refuge at Magdeburg, whence many pamphlets, satires, satirical poems and wood-cuts were issued, designed to bring hatred and contempt upon the Augsburg and Leipsic Interims and their authors.

Edict of Charles V.

After having, as he imagined, suppressed religious innovations by means of the Augsburg Interim, the Emperor Charles V. proceeded to reform the Catholic Church in Germany by a special edict remarkable for its great wisdom and moderation.

Circle of Burgundy.

The same Diet at Augsburg incorporated the seventeen provinces of the Netherlands with the Germano-Roman Empire under the name of the Circle of Burgundy.

Pope Julius III. and Charles V.

Pope Paul III. died in November, 1549; whereupon the Cardinal Del Monte was elected Pope by the conclave of cardinals, and assumed the title of Julius III. The new Pope courted the Emperor's favor by reopening the Council of Trent, while Charles V. summoned a new German imperial Diet at Augsburg to devise means for compelling the Protestant party in Germany to submit to the Council's decrees.

Spanish Inquisition in the Netherlands.

As Charles V. advanced in years, and as his constitutional melancholy became settled more heavily over his mind, he more willingly engaged in the work of religious persecution. He had just introduced the Spanish Inquisition into the Netherlands; and his cruel Edict of Brussels threatened the death-penalty against all who should buy, sell, possess or read any Protestant book, or who should meet to study the Scriptures or speak against any of the Roman Catholic doctrines. Men who were guilty of such offenses were beheaded, while women were either burned or buried alive.

Maurice's Desertion of Charles V.

When the Emperor Charles V. seemed to have attained the object of his desires; when everything seemed to insure his elevation to the position of temporal head of all Christendom, and when the Council of the Church had reassembled at Trent, Duke Maurice of Saxony, the prince to whom Charles V. was indebted for the overthrow of the League of Schmalkald, seeing to what dangers the civil and religious liberties of Germany were exposed by the ambitious schemes of the

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Emperor, and offended because of the captivity of his father-in-law, Philip of Hesse, suddenly formed a secret alliance with King Henry II. of France, the son and successor of Francis I., but concealed his designs until the most favorable time arrived for their execution.

Maurice's Alliance with Henry II. of France.

The treaty between Maurice of Saxony and Henry II. of France provided for combined action against the Emperor Charles V. One of the articles authorized the French king to seize the towns of Metz, Toul, Verdun and Cambray, and to hold them as Imperial Vicar—an arrangement by which France held these towns until a recent date. This treaty was signed at the Castle of Chambord, near Blois, by Henry II. of France and the Margrave Albert of Brandenburg, January, 1552.

Maurice's Open War with the Emperor.

Maurice immediately granted freedom of religion to the Protestant city of Magdeburg, which he had been for some time besieging; and then, suddenly throwing off the mask, he published a manifesto announcing his intention to maintain the laws and constitution of the German Empire, to protect the Protestant religion and to liberate the Landgrave of Hesse. In March, 1552, Maurice advanced into Southern Germany with three divisions of his army and took possession of Augsburg.

The Imperial Forces.

The Emperor was not alarmed by rumors of Maurice's proceedings, and had sent large detachments of his army into Hungary and Italy, while posting himself with a small guard at Innsbruck, in the Tyrol, to watch the proceedings of the Council of Trent.

Maurice's Invasion of the Tyrol.

Maurice marched into the Tyrol to make the Emperor a prisoner at Innsbruck. He put to flight a small force which the Emperor had collected upon the borders of the Tyrol, and took the pass and castle of Ehrenberg by storm. The Council of Trent was broken up in confusion; and Charles V., who was then afflicted with the gout, escaped with difficulty from Innsbruck in the cold and darkness of a rainy night, being carried in a litter over the snow-covered mountain roads into Carinthia. Before his hasty flight from Innsbruck, Charles V. released the captive John Frederick of Saxony, whom he had kept a prisoner since the battle of Mühlberg. Maurice might perhaps have taken the Emperor prisoner, but desisted because he "had no cage big enough for such a bird."

Flight of Charles V.

French Invasions.

In the meantime Maurice's ally, King Henry II. of France, invaded Lorraine and seized the strong towns of Toul, Metz and Verdun, according to treaty; after which he marched into Luxemburg, where he captured several towns, whose plunder he bestowed on his courtiers and higher officers.

Alarmed at the rapid advance of Maurice, the Emperor's brother, Archduke Ferdinand of Austria, immediately concluded with the

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Religious Peace of Passau.

Protestant princes the Religious Peace of Passau, by which the Protestants of Germany were allowed perfect religious freedom, the Landgrave Philip of Hesse was set at liberty, and a permanent peace and amnesty were decided upon, August, 1552. This was the first victory of the Reformation.

War with the Turks Renewed.

After the conclusion of the Peace of Passau, the forces of the Schmalkaldic League were either disbanded or enlisted in the war against the Turks, which had again broken out in Hungary, through an imaginary slight which the Sultan had inflicted upon Martinuzzi, Bishop of Waradin and guardian of the infant Zapolya. The restless and warlike bishop offered to betray the interests of his ward by securing the principality of Transylvania and the Hungarian crown to King Ferdinand on condition of being made a cardinal and governor of Transylvania.

Turkish Invasion of Transylvania.

The Turkish army at once invaded Transylvania, and was opposed by the united forces of Martinuzzi and Castaldo, Ferdinand's general; but the cardinal's arrogance became unendurable; and the general accused him of a secret understanding with the Turks, and caused him to be assassinated, with the consent of King Ferdinand, whose memory is stained with many similar crimes.

Turkish Invasion of Hungary.

The Turks now overran all of Southern Hungary, and took possession of Temesvar and the other fortresses of the Banat; and their political and religious customs remained established there until 1716. The approach of Maurice of Saxony after the Peace of Passau forced the Turks to retire from Erlau, a little town in the North of Hungary, which had withstood three furious assaults from the Ottoman forces, thus holding them at bay until succor could arrive.

Siege of Metz by Charles V.

Late in 1552 the Emperor Charles V., at the head of an army of a hundred thousand men, undertook the recapture of Metz from the French. That strong fortress was gallantly defended by Francis, Duke of Guise, and all the chivalry of France. The Margrave Albert of Brandenburg, who had hitherto refused to accede to the Peace of Passau, and had been ravaging Western Germany as the French king's ally, now suddenly changed sides, defeated and captured the Duke d'Aumale and made peace with the Emperor.

Albert of Brandenburg.

Successful Defense of Metz by the French.

Metz was so skillfully and successfully defended by the French garrison under the Duke of Guise that the Emperor Charles V., after a siege of little more than two months, was obliged to raise the siege and to beat a disgraceful retreat, having lost about forty thousand men during the siege, his Spanish and Italian troops having suffered severely from the cold of winter and from the heavy rains which drenched their camp. Metz then became wholly French, and Lutheran books were burned and the Protestant worship was suppressed. That

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fortified town remained in the possession of France until 1870, when it was recovered by Germany.

Turkish Pirates in the Mediterranean.

In the meantime the Turkish corsair Draghut ravaged the Mediterranean coasts. From every cliff and castle along the Italian shores an anxious lookout was kept for the sails of this marauder, whose approach was too frequently signaled to the terrified inhabitants of the villages by columns of smoke. Besides capturing richly laden merchantment at sea, the pirates frequently penetrated inland, carrying into slavery all whom they could seize. They attacked the island of Corsica, which then belonged to Genoa, and took several places; but there the Turks quarreled with their Christian allies, the French, and seized all the Corsicans who were fit to row in their galleys, along with several French nobles, whom they detained for ransom.

Albert of Brandenburg.

As the Margrave Albert of Brandenburg continued his wars and robberies in Lower Saxony, a new league of German princes was formed against him, and Maurice of Saxony marched against him to force him to accept peace. Maurice was victorious in the long and obstinate battle of Sievershausen, in 1553, but received a gun-shot wound, of which he died two days afterward, in the thirty-second year of his age and in the flower of his manly strength. He was a man of rare qualities, "prudent and secret, enterprising and energetic." His brother Augustus succeeded him as Elector of Saxony; and the Electorate of Saxony remained in the possession of the Albertine branch of the Saxon dynasty until the dissolution of the Germano-Roman Empire in 1806, as did also the Kingdom of Saxony thereafter.

Battle of Sievershausen and Death of Maurice.

Albert's Last Years.

Albert of Brandenburg suffered another defeat near Brunswick, and passed the remaining years of his life as a dependent upon the French court or upon his brother-in-law, the Duke of Baden. Germany enjoyed tranquillity during the last half of the sixteenth century, during which it took little part in general European affairs.

Tranquillity of Germany.

Siege and Capture of Terouenne and Hesdin by Charles V.

In 1553 Charles V., after a vigorous siege, took the town of Terouenne from the French by assault, destroyed it and massacred the entire garrison. Hesdin was also taken by the imperial forces; and during the siege of that fortress Emmanuel Philibert, eldest son of the exiled Duke of Savoy, exhibited those remarkable talents which regained for him his father's dominions in due time. The duke died a few months afterward at Vercelli, which the French seized and plundered almost immediately upon his death.

Pope Paul IV.

Pope Julius III. died in 1554, and his successor, Marcellus II., soon afterward also passed to his grave; whereupon John Peter Caraffa, who had been distinguished for his piety, learning, and simple and blameless life, was elected Pope by the conclave of cardinals, and assumed the title of Paul IV. The new Pope was a member of the

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Oratory of Divine Love, which had been instituted during the pontificate of Leo X. He was also one of the founders of the Theatins. He was seventy-nine years of age when he became Pope. He appeared in public in a magnificent array of velvet and gold, and his daily life was characterized by princely pomp and ceremony. His ruling passion was hatred of the Emperor Charles V., whose jealousy of the Popes he regarded as the cause of the alienation of the Germans from the Roman Church. Paul IV. accordingly hastened to enter into a close alliance with King Henry II. of France, and magnified all his causes of disagreement with the Emperor.

Religious Peace of Augsburg

In 1555, in accordance with the terms of the Peace of Passau, Charles V. summoned a Diet of the German Empire at Augsburg; and, after much deliberation, this Diet concluded the *Religious Peace of Augsburg* the same year, by which the Protestants of Germany were allowed perfect liberty of conscience and full toleration for their religion, as well as equal civil and political rights with the Catholics, and to retain possession of the ecclesiastical property which they had seized. A free right of departure was granted to subjects who did not follow the religion of the Electors, and a free toleration was allowed those who remained. Each German state was secured in the right to maintain either the Protestant or the Catholic worship, or to tolerate both or prohibit whichever it pleased.

A Subject of Future Dispute.

The demand which the Catholics made that those of the clergy who should in the future become Protestants should lose their offices and incomes occasioned the most vehement disputes. It being impossible to come to an agreement, the point was left undecided, and was admitted as a spiritual reservation into the laws of peace—"a seed of bloody contests."

Abdications of Charles V.

The failure of the Emperor Charles V. to restore the unity of the Church made him lose his interest in the affairs of the world; and in 1555 and 1556, to the astonishment of the whole world, he followed the example of Diocletian by resigning the scepter of power, abdicating all his thrones and passing the remainder of his life in quiet retirement and monastic penance. The Emperor had this scheme in contemplation for a long time, and his failing health and recent political failures had made him more anxious than ever to carry it out. The recent death of his mother, Queen Joanna, whom the Spaniards had always regarded as their sovereign, made it possible for Charles to dispose of the Spanish crowns. In hours of prayer he imagined that he heard his mother's voice calling him away, and he determined to pass his remaining days in retirement.

With this object in view he called his son Philip, who had married Queen Mary of England, to Brussels and there invested him with the

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His Abdications of the Crowns of the Netherlands, Spain, Naples and Spanish America.

Grand Mastership of the Order of the Golden Fleece. Then, in the presence of all the Estates of the Netherlands, October 25, 1555, the Emperor abdicated the sovereignty of the seventeen provinces of the Netherlands, which he conferred upon his son PHILIP II., reviewed the events of his reign, implored the solemn assembly to pardon all the errors which he might have committed, and charged his son to defend the Catholic religion, to do justice and to love his subjects. His sister Mary, the widow of King Louis II. of Hungary, resigned the regency of the Netherlands at the same time; and Philip II. appointed the Duke of Savoy as her successor. In the presence of all the Spanish nobles in the Netherlands, assembled in the same hall several weeks afterward, Charles V. abdicated the crowns of Spain, Naples and Sicily, and the sovereignty of Spanish America, all of which were also conferred upon Philip II.

His Abdication of the German Imperial Crown.

In the autumn of 1556 Charles V. abdicated the German imperial crown in favor of his brother Ferdinand, Archduke of Austria and King of Bohemia and Hungary. This latter abdication was addressed to the Electors, princes and Estates of Germany, and was formally accepted by the German imperial Diet at Frankfort in 1558, when Ferdinand was chosen Emperor, after pledging himself to observe the Peace of Religion—a pledge which he honestly fulfilled. Thenceforth the House of Hapsburg remained divided into a Spanish and an Austrian branch.

Emperor Ferdinand I., A. D., 1556–1564.

Charles V. at San Yuste, in Spain.

Immediately after committing to his most trusted friends, the Prince of Orange and Chancellor Seld, the document by which he abdicated the imperial crown of Germany, Charles proceeded to Spain, accompanied by his two sisters, the dowager queens of Hungary and France. He retired to the province of Estremadura, in the West of Spain, passing the remaining two years of his life in the residence which he had built near the monastery of San Yuste, on the pleasant declivity of a hill, surrounded by plantations of trees. He passed his retirement in religious devotion, in cultivating his own garden and orchard and in mechanical inventions.

His Mechanical Diversions.

The ex-Emperor spent many hours with the Italian mechanician Torriano in making clocks and watches or in other delicate machinery. Having failed in repeated attempts to make two watches run exactly alike, he is said to have exclaimed: "I cannot make two watches run alike, and yet, fool that I was, I thought of governing so many nations of different languages and religions and living in different climes!"

His Mock Funeral and His Death.

Two years after his abdication the ex-Emperor felt his end approaching, and was seized with a fancy for going through the ceremonies of his own funeral. He attired himself in monkish costume, and joined in the mournful chants of the brotherhood of monks around

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an empty coffin which was placed in the convent chapel. This solemn farce was turned into a reality in less than a month; as the great ex-monarch breathed his last on September 21, 1558, at the age of fifty-eight, worn out by toils of state rather than by years.

SECTION V.—LUTHERANISM AND CALVINISM.

Progress of the Reformation in Europe.

THUS by the middle of the sixteenth century the Church of Rome had been repudiated by the Teutonic nations of Europe, except by Austria and some of the other German states. The Reformation also made some progress among the Latin nations, especially in France, but was checked in Italy and Spain, partly by the character of the people and partly by the severity of the Inquisition; many of the followers of the new doctrines dying in dungeons or at the stake, while many illustrious authors and scholars who advocated the new movement sought refuge in exile. Some embraced principles which even the Reformers rejected as heretical. The two Italian relatives Socínus denied Christ's divinity and the doctrine of the Trinity, views advocated by the Arians of the early Christian Church and by the modern Unitarians. The Spaniard Servetus held heterodox opinions respecting the Trinity; for which he perished at the stake at Geneva, through Calvin's instrumentality, in 1553.

Socinus and Servetus.

Lutheranism in Germany.

In Germany, the birthplace of the Reformation, the Lutheran form of worship strove long with the Catholic for the mastery. Lutheranism gradually spread from Saxony and Hesse over the neighboring states, attained the ascendency in the North of Germany, gained great headway in Suabia and Franconia, and extended itself from Strassburg into Alsace and Lorraine.

Lutheranism in Prussia and the Baltic Region.

In the early part of the Reformation the doctrines of Luther had penetrated to the region of the Vistula and the Baltic shores, where Albert of Brandenburg, the Grand Master of the Teutonic Order, pressed upon by the Poles and deserted by the Emperor and the Empire, had become a Lutheran, put an end to the Teutonic Order as a sovereign power by a treaty with King Sigismund I. of Poland in 1525, and received the eastern part of Prussia as a hereditary duchy under the suzerainty of the King of Poland. His children inherited the Prussian duchy, which finally came into the possession of the Electoral branch of the Brandenburg House of Hohenzollern, and became independent of Poland. In Courland and Livonia the same thing occurred with the Head of the Order of the Sword. Lutheranism was also established in the Scandinavian kingdoms, as we shall presently see.

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Lutheranism in Austria, Hungary and Bohemia.

The Catholic form of worship was zealously championed by the Dukes of Bavaria, by the royal Austrian House of Hapsburg, by the spiritual Electors of the German Empire and by the prince-bishops. Ingolstadt was the great seat of Catholic learning in Germany. But the Emperors Ferdinand I. and Maximilian II. both sought not to offend the consciences of their subjects, thus allowing Lutheranism to gain many converts in the hereditary Austrian territories. The Protestants soon obtained religious toleration, and erected several churches in the archduchy of Austria and in the duchies of Carinthia and Styria. The Reformation made such rapid strides in Hungary and Transylvania that the Protestants outnumbered the Catholics, and acquired religious freedom and equal political rights with their opponents. The old Hussites of Bohemia mainly embraced the Lutheran doctrines. Notwithstanding the many treaties which guaranteed the rights of the Protestants in the Austrian dominions, those rights were disregarded by later rulers, who reëstablished the supremacy of the Catholic State Church.

Zwinglianism and Calvinism in Germany.

The Reformed Church which Ulrich Zwingli originated in Switzerland also spread itself into Germany at an early period. Zwingli's doctrines were accepted and supported by only a few towns in the South of Germany, until John Calvin, the refugee French Reformer in Geneva, adopted Zwingli's principles and fashioned them into a complete system of doctrine by uniting them with his own views, after which the Reformed Church in Germany obtained numerous accessions. Duke Frederick III. of Baden introduced this system into his own dominions from the Palatinate, and in 1559 he ordered Ursínus and Olevianus to draw up the *Heidelberg Catechism*, a widely-extended compend of the Zwinglian and Calvinistic doctrines.

Heidelberg Catechism.

Melanchthon's Disciples.

The Zwinglian and Calvinistic Church was also introduced into Hesse, Bremen and Brandenburg. Even Melanchthon and his disciples—called *Philippists* and *Cryptocalvinists*—inwardly accepted Calvin's views as correct. Melanchthon so embittered his last days by promulgating these opinions that he died calumniated and full of sorrow, in 1560, and his disciples in Saxony suffered persecution and imprisonment. An effort was made to restore harmony among the Protestants of Germany by the *Form of Concord*, a confession of faith subscribed by ninety-six of the Lutheran Estates of the Empire about the year A. D. 1580; but its only result was to confirm and aggravate the dissensions and animosities between the Lutherans and Calvinists of Germany. Thus, in the century of the Reformation, German Protestantism was divided between the Lutheran and the German Reformed Church, which are still the two great Protestant Church organizations in Germany.

Lutheran and German Reformed Churches.

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Zwingli and the German Reformed Church.

Switzerland was divided between Protestantism and Catholicism, and the Zwinglian system which prevailed in the greater German cantons very nearly resembled the Calvinistic doctrine which was supreme in French Switzerland; so that Zwingli is considered the founder of the German Reformed Church, whose creed is based on the Heidelberg Catechism, the same as the Lutheron creed is based on the Augsburg Confession.

John Calvin and His Theocracy at Geneva.

John Calvin, or Jean Chauvin—the French Reformer—fled from persecution in France, to Geneva, in Switzerland; where he established a sort of theocracy, and endeavored to bring Christianity to its primitive simplicity in ceremonies and worship, excluding images, ornaments, organs, candles and crucifixes from the churches, and allowing no church feast but a rigorously-observed Sabbath, to be spent in prayer, preaching and the singing of Psalms, which Calvin's faithful fellow-minister, Theodore Beza, had translated into French. Calvin taught the creed of the great Christian Father, St. Augustine, that man is incapable of himself to do good and partake of salvation, and that the future destiny of every human creature is preordained from time of birth. Although Calvin had fled from persecution himself and had severely denounced religious intolerance on the part of the Catholics, he was very intolerant himself and became a violent persecutor, causing Servetus to be burned at the stake for denying the doctrine of the Trinity and Christ's divinity. Calvinism was generally rejected by the higher orders, because it opposed many prevalent amusements, such as the theater, dancing and the more refined pleasures of society. Like the ancient lawgivers, Calvin exercised unbounded influence at Geneva, in civil and religious affairs, and in education and manners, until his death in 1564.

Calvin's Character.

Calvin was a man of great intellect and moral power. He was severe to himself and to others, and hostile to all earthly pleasures. His doctrine is impressed with his character—severity and simplicity. He acquired a command over men by the reverence due to his strong and pure will.

Elders, or Presbyters.

The constitution of the Calvinistic Church is a republican synodical government. The congregation, represented by freely chosen *elders*, or *presbyters*, exercises the power of the Church, elects the ministers, watches over morals by means of the elders, administers the Church discipline and punishments and attends to the distribution of alms. The ministers and a part of the elders form the synod, which gives the Church laws to the different congregations.

Calvinism spread rapidly from Geneva into the South of France, into Scotland and into the Northern Netherlands. In France the Calvinists were called *Huguenots* and were rigorously persecuted, their min-

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Calvinism in France, Scotland and the Netherlands.

isters being given to the flames. In Scotland they were called *Presbyterians*, because the affairs of their Church were managed by *elders*, or *presbyters*, elected by the congregations. The apostle of Calvinism in Scotland was the celebrated John Knox, who succeeded in establishing that faith as the state-religion of Scotland. In the Northern Netherland provinces Calvinism soon obtained a foothold, and became the state-religion of the new Dutch Republic (Holland); and in 1618 the views of the Arminians, who did not fully accept Calvin's doctrine of predestination, were condemned as heretical by the Synod of Dort, which upheld St. Augustine's doctrine of man's inability of himself to do good and be saved, and punished the Arminian leaders by death or imprisonment.

SECTION VI.—ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH AND SOCIETY OF JESUS.

Council of Trent and Its Decisions.

ALL the Popes during the Reformation made strenuous efforts to exterminate heresy; but the twice-interrupted Council of Trent, which first assembled in 1545, and which opened its third session in January, 1562, adjourned finally December 4, 1563, without effecting the desired result, although the Catholic Church was somewhat purified of its corruptions. This ecclesiastical assembly recognized as infallible the religious doctrines that had hitherto been considered orthodox, and embodied these doctrines in carefully-defined propositions. This Council established a purer code of morals, improved the Church discipline and inaugurated a more stringent supervision of the clergy.

Doctrine of Indulgences.

The Council of Trent affirmed the use of indulgences as being "most salutary for the Christian people, and approved by the authority of councils, is to be retained in the Church"; but the council decreed that "in granting them moderation be observed, lest, by excessive facility, discipline may be enervated." All modern Church legislation on the subject of indulgences has been founded on the special instruction of this council; but as the decree of the council did not explicitly declare what is the exact effect of an indulgence, Pope Pius VI., more than two centuries later, further explained it in his famous bull, *Auctorem Fidei*, that an indulgence, received with due dispositions, remits not only the canonical penance attached to certain crimes in this life, but also the temporal punishment which the penitent would be obliged to undergo in purgatory after death.

Roman Catholic Reformation.

The Catholics regard the resolutions of the Council of Trent as their own Reformation, and these resolutions constitute the basis of the Roman Catholic Church as at present constituted. The work of the

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Council of Trent was gradually accepted in all Roman Catholic countries, and is the final conclusion of the Catholic doctrine. In this manner every attempt at innovation was prevented, and Roman Catholicism was impressed with the character of stability; while development and progress is the essence of Protestantism.

Effect of Luther's Work on Catholicism.

Luther's work was followed by gratifying results even for the Roman Church. The Protestant Reformation was also a Catholic Reformation. The formidable and growing opposition from without forced the Church of Rome to reform itself within, in order to preserve its existence. Thus, while religious beliefs and principles had undergone a remarkable transformation, especially in Northern and Central Europe, a Catholic reaction, or counter-revolution, had already commenced, which arrested the progress of the Reformation, and neutralized its results in Austria, Bohemia, Hungary, Italy and Spain, or, in other words, in all the countries subject to either the Austrian or the Spanish branch of the House of Hapsburg.

Catholic Reaction.

Purification of the Roman Catholic Church.

This was partly due to the powerful moral reaction felt almost equally within and without the Roman Church against the old-time venality and corruption of the clergy. Many virtuous prelates—the greatest and best of whom was Charles Borromeo, Archbishop of Milan —restored the respectability of the Church; and ever since no Pope has disgraced his station by the shameful iniquities of Alexander VI. or the refined voluptuousness of Leo X. As the reforms for which Wycliffe, Huss, Luther, Melanchthon, Zwingli and Calvin had striven were thus effected, the necessity for a separation from the old established Church became less strongly felt.

Ignatius Loyola and the Jesuits.

The efforts of the Popes to suppress the Reformation, or to arrest its progress, found their chief support in the Order of Jesuits, which was founded in the year 1540 by the enthusiastic and chivalrous Ignatius Loyola, a Spanish nobleman. During the healing of the wound which he had received at the defense of Pampeluna in 1521, his mind was turned to serious reflection by reading the Lives of the Saints. He accordingly renounced the military profession, and with prayers and penance made a toilsome pilgrimage to the Holy Sepulcher at Jerusalem, but returned to his native land at the command of the papal legate.

Loyola's Education.

So ignorant was Ignatius Loyola at the age of thirty-three that he then had to begin his elementary education. With incredible perseverance he acquired the education which he needed, beginning at a school at Barcelona, and completing his studies in the great universities of Alcala, Salamanca and Paris. At each of these places he labored to convert the students to a religious life. Among his early converts at Paris were Peter Faber, Francis Xavier and Peter Laynez.

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His Three Monastic Vows.

These all went through the "Spiritual Exercises" with him, and he made them fast three days and three nights at a time. In 1534, when Loyola was in his forty-third year, he and six of his young disciples at Paris took upon themselves the three monastic vows of poverty, chastity and obedience, along with a fourth vow to devote themselves to the service of Christ by going as missionaries wherever the Pope might send them. They were to complete their studies first, and the vow was to take effect in three years.

Founding of the Society of Jesus.

In 1540 Ignatius Loyola and his disciples submitted to Pope Paul III. the rules which they had adopted and the purpose to which they had devoted their lives. The Pope approved the new institution, which became incorporated under the name of the *Society of Jesus*. In 1541 Ignatius Loyola was elected the first General of the Order; but his constitution was not approved until the election of his successor, Peter Laynez, one of his earliest disciples and also a Spaniard. The Pope endowed the *Jesuits*, as the members of the new Order were called, with great privileges.

Constitution of the Order.

The Jesuits adopted a monarchical and oligarchical government; and the General of the Order, residing at Rome, knew each member's qualifications and work. The Order was divided into provinces; and the provincial, as well as the local superiors, were appointed by the General, who was aided in the government of the Order by assistants. The Provincials who governed the districts or provinces made reports to the General at regular intervals concerning the conduct and character of the members. In case the General proved unworthy of his trust, the assistants could convoke a general assembly of deputies to investigate charges, and even to go so far as to proceed to depose or expel the offender.

Four Classes of the Order.

The four classes into which this powerful religious association was divided were: 1. The Professed, who, after going through the other stages, had taken all vows; 2. The Coadjutors, who aided the Professed in teaching, preaching and the direction of souls; 3. The Scholastics, employed in study or teaching; 4. The Novices, who passed two years in spiritual exercises, such as prayer and meditation.

Jesuit Asceticism.

Strict obedience and perfect subordination in everything compatible with the laws and precepts of Christianity became the soul of this famous religious society. Its members were obliged to disconnect themselves with the rest of the world, their families and friends. Those intending to enter the Order were required to pass through a long period of severe probation, during which their talents and dispositions were carefully examined. Every member of the Order was required to be in the hands of his superior "like a staff in the hands of an old man," or "as clay in the hands of the potter." The subordination

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was complete in all the gradations. Ignatius Loyola's military training caused him to constitute his society like soldiers in an army:

> "Theirs not to reason why,
> Theirs not to make reply,
> Theirs but to do and die."

Jesuit Zeal for Catholicism.

The chief object of the Jesuits was to counteract Protestantism and to suppress the spirit of inquiry awakened by the Reformation. By persecution and seduction they endeavored to win Protestants over to Catholicism; and, by getting the education of youth into their hands, they sought to bring up the young in the doctrines of the Roman Church. The Order acquired immense wealth by donations and legacies, and was thus enabled to establish schools and colleges in every Catholic country of Europe, which attracted the necessitous by imparting instruction gratuitously.

Spread of Jesuitism.

The outward and immediate success of the Society of Jesus justified the hopes of its founder and the wisdom of his plans, as the Order soon spread over Catholic Europe, and many of its members were engaged in remote quarters of the globe in proclaiming the Gospel to the heathen. At the time of Ignatius Loyola's death, in 1556, the Jesuits had thirteen provinces, mainly in Spain, Portugal and Italy. Their influence was very great; as they took possession of the pulpits, schools and confessionals wherever they established themselves. They were the most accomplished and popular preachers and occupied anew the deserted churches. They supplanted other priests in the care of consciences; and, as they taught gratuitously and well, their schools were soon filled with the children of all classes.

Jesuit Check to Protestantism.

The efforts of the Jesuits to counteract the Reformation were prosecuted zealously and effectively, contributing immensely in Spain, Italy and Germany to arrest and prevent the spread of Protestantism. Distinguished for their learning, their zeal and their disinterestedness, devoting themselves in the pulpit and in the school with singleness of purpose to the fulfillment of the mission to which they had consecrated their lives, their influence was everywhere felt as a formidable adversary to the Protestant doctrine.

Jesuit Learning and Influence.

Instead of wasting their time in austerites, as did the older monastic orders, the Jesuits were encouraged to cultivate all their intellectual faculties by the liberal pursuits of art, science and general literature. As they thus became the most accomplished instructors of youth, they acquired a controlling influence over the leading minds of Europe during the most impressible years of life—an influence clearly discernible in the later policy of the Austrian House of Hapsburg.

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Jesuit World-wide Work.

The General of the Order had the most absolute authority in assigning every member the work for which he was adapted and qualified. While the superior talents of some of the Order directed the subtle diplomacy of European courts, the pious zeal of others found active employment in the most toilsome and self-denying missions among the savagely populated forests of America or in the crowded cities of China and Japan.

Jesuit Missions in America.

Jesuit missionaries converted many of the American Indians to Christianity, and were pioneers in the exploration of the Great Lakes of North America. In Paraguay Jesuit missionaries gained possession of the civil government of the country, converted and civilized the Indians, and rescued them from the system of slavery under which they had been reduced by the Spaniards and the Portuguese, at the same time teaching them agriculture, building and the arts of social life, and inducing them to exclude all other influences.

Missionary Work of St. Francis Xavier and Robert de Nobili in Asia.

The most illustrious of Jesuit missionaries was the celebrated St. Francis Xavier, who began his career in the East Indies in 1542, who preached in Goa, Ceylon, Malacca, Cochin-China and Japan, and who baptized hundreds of thousands in those distant lands, dying on his way to China, in 1551, after a missionary career of nine years. Another was Robert De Nobili, who went to India as a missionary in 1605, arriving at Goa, where St. Francis Xavier had landed sixty-three years before, and who made converts to Christianity by disguising himself as a Brahman, in this way practicing Ignatius Loyola's doctrine that the end justifies the means.

Protestant and Catholic Opposition to the Jesuits.

The Jesuits encountered great opposition and fierce abuse from other Catholic orders whom they supplanted, as well as from Protestants. They were accused of all manner of false beliefs and wicked actions. Some of these accusations were well founded, but others were merely the result of the jealousy of their rivals. The system of studies which they introduced into their schools took Europe by surprise, and involved them in a struggle with the Sorbonne of Paris and with the University of Coimbra, in Portugal, and that of Salamanca, in Spain. They were vehemently assailed, their doctrines and practices were bitterly denounced, and their Order was often suppressed even in Catholic countries and by Catholic rulers.

Macaulay's Remark.

Says Macaulay: "With what vehemence, with what policy, with what exact discipline, with what dauntless courage, with what self-denial, with what forgetfulness of the dearest private ties, with what intense and stubborn devotion to a single end, with what unscrupulous laxity and versatility in the choice of means, the Jesuits fought the battles of their Church, is written in every page of the annals of Europe during several generations. The history of the Order of

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Jesus is the history of the great Catholic reaction against Protestantism in the seventeenth century."

SECTION VII.—SWEDEN'S LIBERATION AND REFORMATION IN SCANDINAVIA (A. D. 1523–1600).

Tyranny of Christian II. of Denmark and Its Result.

A COMPLETE political and religious revolution occurred in the three Scandinavian kingdoms in the sixteenth century. The tyrant Christian II. of Denmark—"the Nero of the North"—was the last king who reigned over the three Scandinavian kingdoms under the Union of Calmar. He irritated the Danish and Swedish nobility to such an extent by his severity and cruelty that insurrections broke out in Denmark and Sweden at the same time—a result which led to the dissolution of the Union of Calmar and the establishment of Lutheranism in the three Scandinavian kingdoms.

Gustavus Vasa of Sweden.

The valiant GUSTAVUS VASA, a brave youth, endowed with the wisdom and valor of his relatives, the Stures, inaugurated the political and ecclesiastical revolution in Sweden, and founded a dynasty of vigorous monarchs, who raised Sweden to the ascendency in the North. He was carried into Denmark as a hostage by Christian II.; but he soon escaped to Lübeck, where he was provided with money and encouraged with promises of the liberation of his native land.

Massacre of Stockholm.

In 1520 Christian II. caused ninety-four Swedish nobles to be perfidiously masacred at Stockholm. Among these massacred nobles was the heroic Gustavus Vasa's father. This atrocity excited universal horror in Sweden. In the same year the brave Gustavus Vasa landed on the shores of Sweden. In the midst of a thousand perils and adventures, he escaped the pursuing emissaries of Christian II., who were constantly at his heels, until he found aid and refuge among the rude inhabitants of the mining region in the North of Dalecarlia.

Gustavus Vasa in Dalecarlia.

His Liberation of Sweden.

Gustavus Vasa aroused the Dalecarlians to an effort to recover the independence of Sweden, and with a force of hardy peasants he conquered Falun, repulsed the Danish troops and their allies and took Upsala. His fame and his call to freedom soon resounded through all lands and brought many warriors to his side. He obtained troops, money and artillery from the Lübeckers and forced the Danish garrison to retreat. After being elected King of Sweden by the Diet of Strengnas, he entered Stockholm in triumph, in June, 1523, thus restoring the independence of Sweden.

His Reign, A. D. 1523–1560.

The Vasa Dynasty in Sweden.

The restored Kingdom of Sweden remained an elective monarchy for twenty years, but in 1544 the Swedish Diet declared the Swedish crown to be hereditary in the male line of the Vasa family. As the

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possessions of the Swedish throne had been so dilapidated by neglect as to be inadequate to support the expenditure, the new royal dignity could be maintained with honor only by augmenting the royal revenue, and for this the Reformation afforded a welcome opportunity.

Lutheranism Established in Sweden.

The Swedish people, instructed in the Lutheran doctrines by the brothers Olaus and Laurentius Petri, gladly embraced the Lutheran faith; and, as the clergy in Sweden had sided with the Danes during the war for Swedish independence, the Swedish Diet placed the possessions of the clergy at Gustavus Vasa's disposal, in 1527. Thus supported by the Diet's resolution, the new Swedish king gradually introduced Lutheranism into his kingdom, and confiscated most of the possessions of the Roman Church in Sweden for the benefit of the Swedish crown. As the Swedish nobility were enriched by this proceeding they supported the king in his policy. After a long resistance, the Swedish bishops yielded to the new system, remained as Estates of the kingdom and heads of the Church, but were dependent upon their king and held in check by the consistories.

Gustavus Vasa and His Successors.

Gustavus Vasa, who sought to make Sweden prosperous by good and wise laws and by encouraging trade and industry, died in 1560, after a reign of thirty-seven years; and the dynasty which he founded occupied the throne of Sweden for almost three centuries, A. D. 1523–1818. Evil times came upon Sweden during the reigns of his sons, who successively occupied the Swedish throne.

Erik XIV., A. D. 1560–1568.

Erik XIV., the first son and successor of Gustavus Vasa, was of so passionate a disposition that he finally became hopelessly insane; and while in that condition he murdered several of the Sture family with his own hand, and caused all the Swedish nobles to tremble in fear of a similar fate. His brothers placed him in confinement, and finally poisoned him in 1568.

His Insanity.

John III., A. D. 1568–1592.

John III., another son of Gustavus Vasa, then became King of Sweden. This monarch was a weak-minded sovereign of vacillating disposition. Being led astray by his wife, who was a rigid Catholic and a Polish princess, and by a Jesuit who lived secretly at Stockholm as an ambassador, John III. endeavored to reëstablish the Catholic religion in Sweden, and consented that his son Sigismund, who was to be King of Sweden and Poland, should be educated as a Catholic. This scheme failed, because of the resistance of the Swedish people to the Catholic ceremonies. John III. himself afterward repented of his project, when his second wife exerted herself in favor of Lutheranism.

His Pro-Catholic Project.

Sigismund, A. D., 1592–1599.

John III. died in 1592; and his son Sigismund, who was King Sigismund III. of Poland, became King of Sweden. Sigismund's attachment to the Roman Catholic Church proved very detrimental

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to his reign in Sweden. He stubbornly refused to comply with the resolution of the Swedish Diet that the Evangelical Lutheran Church should be the state-religion of Sweden and alone tolerated in that kingdom. Thereupon the Diet appointed his uncle Charles, Duke of Sudermania, also a son of Gustavus Vasa, to administer the government of Sweden as regent, A. D. 1598.

His Pro-Catholic Attitude.

Sigismund endeavored vainly to maintain his right to the crown of Sweden by force of arms. He was defeated by his uncle; whereupon the Swedish Diet demanded that he either renounce Rome and govern Sweden in person or send his son to Sweden so that the prince might be educated in the Lutheran religion. As Sigismund refused to comply with this demand he was deposed in 1599; whereupon his uncle, the Duke of Sudermania, was made King of Sweden with the title of CHARLES IX.; and a new law of succession secured the Swedish crown to his family.

His Resistance and Deposition.

Charles IX., A. D. 1599–1611.

In the meantime, while Lutheranism was thus triumphant in Sweden, the Lutheran Church was also established in Denmark. The tyrant CHRISTIAN II., who was at first favorable to the Reformation, was deposed by the Danish Diet in 1523, the same year in which Gustavus Vasa became King of Sweden; whereupon his uncle Frederick, Duke of Holstein, became King FREDERICK I. of Denmark. Frederick I., who was acknowledged as king by the Danish nobility and people, supported the Lutheran doctrines, in order to strengthen himself against his dethroned rival.

Deposition of Christian II. in Denmark.

Frederick I. and Lutheranism.

The deposed Christian II. then became a firm adherent of the Roman Church, in order to gain the support of the Pope and of the Emperor Charles V. in his efforts to recover possession of the crowns of Denmark and Sweden. In the meantime, while Frederick I., at the Diet of Odensee, admitted Protestants in Denmark to equal civil rights with Catholics, and made the Danish Church independent of the Pope, Christian II. made an attack upon Denmark from Norway; but he was taken prisoner, and was incarcerated in a gloomy tower for sixteen years with a Norwegian dwarf as his only companion.

Revolt and Imprisonment of the Deposed Christian II.

Frederick I. died in 1534, after a reign of ten years, and was succeeded on the Danish throne by his son CHRISTIAN III., during whose reign the Lutheran Church was fully established in Denmark. Most of the possessions of the Roman clergy in Denmark were confiscated, and became the property of the Danish crown and nobility; and the Danish bishops, whose titles were retained, became utterly dependent upon their government. Lutheranism was quietly established in Norway by the peasantry, but the Protestant party in Iceland fell with the sword in their hands. The Danish nobility, like the Swedish, acquired great wealth, power and privileges by the Reformation.

Christian III., A. D. 1534–1559.

Lutheranism in Denmark and Norway.

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Frederick II., A. D. 1559–1588.

Christian III. of Denmark and Norway died in 1559, and was succeeded by his son FREDERICK II., who reduced the free people of the Republic of Ditmarsen under the dominion of Denmark, after they had successfully resisted the Danes for several centuries. Denmark finally acknowledged Sweden's independence by the Peace of Stettin, in 1570, which closed the Northern Seven Years' War, but left the seven southern provinces of Sweden in the possession of the King of Denmark. The reign of Frederick II. was prosperous, and was celebrated for the progress of art and science, which were now cultivated in Denmark for the first time. The great astronomer, Tycho Brahe, founded an observatory at Uranienborg. Frederick II. died in 1588, and was succeeded on the throne of Denmark and Norway by his son CHRISTIAN IV., who reigned sixty years.

Peace of Stettin.

Art and Science.

Christian IV., A. D. 1588–1648.

SECTION VIII.—HENRY VIII. AND THE CHURCH OF ENGLAND (A. D. 1509–1553).

Henry VIII., A. D. 1509–1547.

THERE was great joy in England when, upon the death of Henry VII. in 1509, his son HENRY VIII. ascended the English throne; as his father had incurred the hatred of the English people by his jealousy, his severity and his avarice. The new king was only eighteen years of age, but he gave the most promising hopes of making a good sovereign and of having a happy and glorious reign. The contending claims of the rival Houses of York and Lancaster were united in his person, so that he received the cordial and united support of both. His father had left him an enormous treasury, and England was free from foreign and civil wars. In short, no other King of England ever began to reign under circumstances more peculiarly favorable than Henry VIII.

His Happy Accession

His Character.

The young king possessed the qualities essential to win popularity; as he was handsome, carefully educated and highly accomplished, besides being energetic and of a frank and hearty disposition. He was likewise fond of chivalrous amusements and endowed with great powers of mind, while being also a hearty friend of the New Learning and inspired with a sincere desire to rule with justice. But his disposition changed much as he advanced in age; as his naturally violent and impulsive temper, which he was unable to bring under control, became malignant and unrelenting with opposition; and he gradually became fiercer and more tyrannical.

His Marriage with Catharine of Aragon.

A few weeks after his accession Henry VIII. celebrated his marriage with the Princess Catharine of Aragon, and the two were crowned together as King and Queen of England, June 24, 1509. One of the

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young king's first official acts was to bring Empson and Dudley, the hated lawyers of Henry VII., to the scaffold on a charge of treason—a proceeding designed to satisfy popular clamor. Henry VIII. was as prodigal as his father had been penurious; and the great fortune which he inherited was squandered in a few years in tournaments and other expensive entertainments, to the great grief of his careful counselor, Fox, Bishop of Winchester.

His Prodigality.

The young king was entirely under the influence of his Prime Minister, the Earl of Surrey, who took advantage of his master's naturally lavish disposition to encourage him in his prodigality, so that he might become negligent of public business and wholly willing to trust the affairs of state entirely to his Ministers. To counteract the evil influence of the Earl of Surrey and to restrain the young king's follies, Bishop Fox of Winchester introduced at court Thomas Wolsey, who had already displayed the qualities of shrewdness and dexterity.

The Earl of Surrey.

Thomas Wolsey.

Wolsey was the son of a butcher at Ipswich. The great talents and the love of learning which he exhibited in his childhood caused him to be sent to the University of Oxford, where he took his first degree at so early an age as to be called the "boy bachelor." After having occupied various stations with great reputation, he finally became chaplain to Henry VII. He won the favor of Henry VII. by the surprising quickness and adroitness with which he performed a mission from that monarch to the Emperor Maximilian I. of Germany, while that sovereign was at Brussels, going and returning in three days.

His Abilities and Promotion.

By the art of flattery, Wolsey soon acquired an unbounded influence over King Henry VIII.; but he made a different use of that influence from what Bishop Fox had intended, as he encouraged the young king's follies in order to promote his own advancement. He was soon made Archbishop of York and also Chancellor. Wolsey affected to regard Henry VIII. as the wisest of mortals, promoted his amusements and participated in them with the gayety of youth. By thus making himself agreeable as well as useful, Wolsey ruled one of the most capricious and passionate of sovereigns with absolute sway for ten years, and for a time acted a more conspicuous part in public affairs than his master.

His Influence over Henry VIII.

The ambition of Henry VIII. for military glory involved England in a series of costly and unprofitable wars. He joined the League of Cambray against Venice. He also joined Ferdinand of Spain, the Emperor Maximilian I. of Germany and Pope Julius II. in the Holy League against Louis XII. of France, reviving the almost forgotten claims of the Plantagenets to the western provinces of that kingdom. In 1512 he sent an expedition to conquer Guienne; but his crafty

English Invasion of France.

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father-in-law, King Ferdinand of Spain, contrived to reap all the benefits of the enterprise by using the English forces to conquer the Kingdom of Navarre for himself, instead of Guienne for the English king.

Battle of the Spurs. In 1513 Henry VIII. invaded France by way of Calais with an army of twenty thousand men, besieged Terouenne and defeated the French at Guinegate, in an engagement called the *Battle of the Spurs*, because of the ignominious flight of the French cavalry at the first onset, August 16, 1513. In this action the Emperor Maximilian I. served King Henry VIII. as a private soldier; and the Chevalier Bayard, the famous French knight, was among the prisoners taken by the English. Terouenne immediately capitulated; and Tournay surrendered several weeks later, September 9, 1513.

Scottish Invasion of England. King James IV. of Scotland, the brother-in-law of Henry VIII., was the ally of Louis XII. of France. The chivalrous King of Scots invaded England with a large army and ravaged Northumberland; but he was defeated and killed by the English army under the Earl of

Battle of Flodden Field. Surrey at Flodden Field, near the Cheviot Hills, ten thousand gallant Scottish knights being among the slain, September 9, 1513, the very day of the capture of Tournay by Henry VIII. The battle of Flodden Field is celebrated in the old ballads and finely described by Sir Walter Scott in his poem of Marmion.

Peace with Scotland. Scotland was plunged into deep mourning by the loss of her king and the flower of her nobility; but the triumphant Henry VIII. generously granted the request of his sister Margaret, the widow of James IV., who acted as regent for her infant son, James V.; and peace was made between England and Scotland.

Peace with France. As Henry VIII. was deserted by his ally and father-in-law, Ferdinand of Spain, he made peace with Louis XII. of France in 1514. The treaty was sealed by the aged French king's marriage with the Princess Mary, the eldest sister of Henry VIII. Louis XII. died a few months later, January 1, 1515; and his young widowed queen married her old lover, Charles Francis Brandon, Duke of Suffolk, a great favorite of her royal brother and the most accomplished English nobleman of his time.

Wolsey Made a Cardinal. Observing the great influence which Wolsey exerted over King Henry VIII., Pope Leo X. desired to engage him in his interest, and with this object in view made him a cardinal in 1518, also appointing him to the dignity of papal legate in England, thus giving him a power in that kingdom equal to that of the Pope himself. Besides being Archbishop of York, Wolsey was allowed to hold the bishoprics of Tournay, Lincoln and Winchester "in plurality," thus greatly augmenting his power and influence.

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REGAL MAGNIFICENCE OF CARDINAL WOLSEY

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His State and Dignity.

No other churchman ever equaled Cardinal Wolsey in state and dignity. His retinue consisted of eight hundred servants, many of whom were knights and gentlemen; and young nobles served as his pages. He was the first clergyman in England that wore silk and gold, not only on his dress, but also on the saddles and the trappings of his horses. The tallest and handsomest priests were selected to carry the badges of his various offices before him. All this ostentation excited the merriment of the English people, instead of awing them.

Wolsey as Chancellor.

For twenty years Cardinal Wolsey stood at the head of Church and State, and no abler Chancellor ever administered justice in England. He was the most powerful, if not the ablest, subject that England ever had. His decisions were so prompt and so just that the Court of Chancery became the certain refuge of the oppressed—quite the contrary from its later character.

His Versatility of Genius.

Wolsey's genius was unequaled for breadth or versatility. He could play the courtier and divert the idle king's pleasure-loving hours with constant sallies of wit and mirth, or he could act the statesman and guide the most intricate affairs of state with consummate skill. He would sometimes leave the scenes of pomp and splendor, and devote himself with simplicity and meekness to the ordinary duties of the parish priest; visiting the sick and the dying, giving alms to the poor and needy, and ministering in numberless ways to the temporal and spiritual wants of his grateful people. Wolsey's inordinate ambition led him to aspire to the Papacy; and he sacrificed his country's interests and made his king his perpetual dupe, in order to procure the favor of foreign princes by whose patronage he hoped to obtain that dignity.

His Patronage of the New Learning.

Although Cardinal Wolsey was really the mainspring of all that was done in England, he contrived to make every act of government appear to proceed directly from his sovereign, whom he flattered by affecting the most humble submission to the royal will. Like Henry VIII. himself, Wolsey was a friend of the New Learning—a most munificent patron of learned men. He founded the first professorship of Greek in England. He established a school at Ipswich and Christ Church College at Oxford. The latter institution still attests his taste and liberality in building. His household almost equaled the king's in number and magnificence, and knights and barons served at his table. His two mansions—the one at Hampton Court and the other at Whitehall—were so splendid that they became royal palaces after his fall from power.

Emperor Charles V.

As we have seen, Henry VIII., Francis I. of France and Charles I. of Spain were candidates for the imperial throne of Germany after the death of the Emperor Maximilian I., in 1519; and Charles was

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successful, being chosen by the German Electors, thus becoming the Emperor Charles V. and the greatest and most powerful monarch of his time.

Alliance of Henry VIII. with Charles V.

As we have already noticed, both Francis I. of France and the Emperor Charles V. desired to secure the alliance of Henry VIII. A royal interview was arranged between the Kings of England and France to take place near Calais; but before the appointed time the Emperor visited Henry VIII. in England, and won the favor of the English king by flattering Cardinal Wolsey with hopes of being elected Pope at the next vacancy, and by his frank and genial courtesies. On the day of the Emperor's departure Henry VIII. and all his courtiers sailed for Calais to meet the French king.

Field of the Cloth of Gold.

The meeting between Henry VIII. and Francis I. took place in a plain near Calais, in June, 1520, and was called the *Field of the Cloth of Gold*, from the magnificence of the display, many of the tents being of silk and cloth of gold. The two thousand eight hundred tents were inadequate to accommodate the vast multitudes that flocked to this splendid festival, and many ladies and gentlemen of rank were glad to obtain lodging in barns and to sleep upon hay and straw.

Henry VIII., Charles V. and Wolsey.

The meeting lasted a fortnight; and the two kings displayed their knightly skill in tilts and tournaments, while their Ministers talked business, after which they parted with profuse assurances of friendship, and Henry VIII. proceeded to visit the Emperor Charles V. at Gravelines, where he was won over more completely to the imperial side. Wolsey received the revenues of two Spanish bishoprics, in earnest of his greater expectations; but, in spite of the Emperor's promises, his tutor Adrian was made Pope upon the death of Leo X.; and upon the death of Adrian VI., after a short reign, Clement VII., an Italian prince, was invested with the papal tiara by the favor of His Imperial Majesty.

Alliance of Henry VIII. with Francis I.

Though Henry VIII. was the ally of Charles V. in the Emperor's first war with the King of France, the captivity of Francis I. in 1525 in consequence of his disastrous defeat in the battle of Pavia opened the English king's eyes to the Emperor's ambition, and Henry VIII. made an alliance with France in order to secure the release of Francis I. and to prevent the seizure of any part of the French territory by Charles V.

Wolsey's Growing Unpopularity.

Cardinal Wolsey was making himself obnoxious to the English people by his diplomacy. He was generally considered the author of the arbitrary measures by which the king sought to extort money from his subjects in 1525, which almost produced rebellion. Wolsey became more bitterly hated by the English people, although he only carried out the king's instructions; but Henry VIII. became popular because

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THE FIELD OF THE CLOTH OF GOLD, JUNE 15, 1520

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of the relinquishment of his design—a measure which he was unable to avoid.

His Ambition and Power.

Wolsey's disappointments in the last two papal elections aroused his indignation, and the ambitious cardinal now became convinced of the insincerity of the Emperor's promises; and thenceforth England's foreign policy underwent a change. Wolsey's disappointment caused the ambitious Minister to promote his country's true interests by seeking to check the power of Spain. Wolsey was all powerful at home. His nomination as papal legate was confirmed by both Popes Adrian VI. and Clement VII.; and he held in his hands the whole papal power in England, using that power to suit his own purposes.

Henry VIII. and His Latin Book against the Reformation.

In 1521 Henry VIII. wrote a Latin volume against Luther and the Reformation; and Pope Leo X. conferred upon the royal author the title of *Defender of the Faith*, and wrote him a letter praising his wisdom, learning, zeal, charity, gravity, gentleness and meekness—most of which qualities the king did not possess. But a change was soon to take place in the relations between Henry VIII. and the Head of the Church—a change fraught with the most momentous consequences for England, as we shall presently see.

Henry VIII. and Anne Boleyn.

About this time Henry VIII. became captivated by the charms of Anne Boleyn, a beautiful young lady then living at his court. She had been educated at the French court, and had returned to England with her English beauty adorned by French grace and vivacity. Seeking for a pretext upon which he could obtain a divorce from his first wife, Catharine of Aragon, that he might marry Anne Boleyn, he affected great doubts about the legality of his marriage with Catharine because she had previously been married to his brother Arthur. Such marriages are forbidden by the Levitical law and by a canon of the Roman Church, but a special dispensation had been obtained from Pope Alexander VI. sanctioning Henry's marriage with his brother's widow.

Henry's Scruples as to His First Marriage.

Henry VIII. seems to have been sincere in his doubts about the legality of his marriage with Catharine of Aragon. He coupled these conscientious scruples with his "despair of having male issue by Catharine, to inherit the realm." All the sons born of this marriage had died in their infancy; and only a sickly daughter, the Princess Mary, survived. The king in his superstition considered the premature deaths of his sons a sure mark of Divine wrath. Wolsey craftily aggravated these fears, if he did not inspire them; as the ambitious cardinal hated the Spanish party, of which Catharine of Aragon was the head, and coveted the glory of arranging a new marriage for his king with a French princess. But Henry VIII. made his own choice, without his Minister's aid, or even without the Pope's permission, by

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deciding to marry Anne Boleyn after obtaining a divorce from Catharine of Aragon.

Dilemma of Pope Clement VII.

Another papal dispensation was required for the king's divorce from his first wife before he could form a new marriage, and Cardinal Wolsey was commissioned to secure this divorce. Pope Clement VII. was in a serious dilemma. If he sanctioned the English king's divorce from his Spanish wife he would offend the Emperor Charles V., who was her nephew; and the Netherlands would be almost certain to become Protestant, along with Germany. If he forbade the divorce both England and France might renounce the Roman Church, as these countries were full of secret or open adherents of the Reformation. Under these circumstances the Pope temporized.

Wolsey's Perplexity.

Cardinal Wolsey was as much perplexed as to the proper course to pursue as was the Pope. If he granted the king's divorce on his own responsibility he would offend the Pope. If he refused he would incur the king's wrath, and thus Wolsey likewise temporized. For two weary years the impatient Henry VIII. was kept in suspense, and his impatience was aggravated by his violent passion for Anne Boleyn.

Trial Court of Cardinals Wolsey and Campeggio.

At length, in 1528, Pope Clement VII. sent Cardinal Campeggio, an Italian prelate, to England to decide in concert with Cardinal Wolsey the validity of the king's first marriage. Campeggio endeavored to settle the matter by private negotiation, first seeking to persuade the king to abandon his thoughts of a divorce, and then trying to induce Catharine to consent to the divorce and retire to a nunnery, but failing in both endeavors. After another year of delays, Cardinals Wolsey and Campeggio proceeded to a trial of the cause in 1529; but they appeared unwilling to come to a decision. The king's patience was almost exhausted, and the courtiers now perceived that the king's favor for Wolsey was waning.

Queen Catharine's Plea.

The court organized by Cardinals Wolsey and Campeggio in 1529 to try the case of the king's first marriage had sat for two months without arriving at any result. Catharine of Aragon had all along appealed to her nephew, the Emperor Charles V., for protection. She now appeared before this court with her royal husband, and threw herself on her knees before him, addressing him an affecting and affectionate appeal not to brand her with the crime of incest and their daughter Mary as an illegitimate child, and imploring him to remember the fidelity with which she had observed her marriage vows for twenty years. She then made a solemn appeal to Pope Clement VII., after which she left the court and refused to enter it again.

Action of Pope Clement VII.

On July 23, 1529, Cardinal Campeggio suddenly adjourned the court until October following; and a few days afterwards orders came from Pope Clement VII. transferring the case to Rome, and citing

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Henry VIII. and his queen to appear there and plead their respective causes at the papal bar. The King of England was now convinced that the Pope had all along been trifling with him and that he was willing to sacrifice him to please the Emperor Charles V.

Cardinal Wolsey's Disgrace.

This disposition of the case sealed the fate of Cardinal Wolsey, and made a rupture between Henry VIII. and the Pope inevitable. The king turned furiously upon Wolsey, who was in no way responsible for the Pope's action. It was the king's habit to make his Ministers responsible for the fate of the measures entrusted to them, but Henry VIII. proceeded cautiously. Wolsey's influence with his king was a thing of the past. Anne Boleyn, who suspected that the great cardinal opposed her marriage with the king, joined his enemies, of which his pride and arrogance had created many.

His Fall.

Wolsey's enemies proceeded with such secrecy that his first knowledge of their action was an indictment brought against him with the king's consent, but the great cardinal had long dreaded such an event as the result of a failure of the divorce proceedings. The Great Seal was taken from him and intrusted to Sir Thomas More. Wolsey, deprived of all his temporal honors and offices, was banished from court and ordered to retire to his archbishopric of York. The king also seized the fallen Minister's palace of York Place, afterward called Whitehall, along with his gorgeous plate and furniture, his clothes and a tomb which he had prepared for himself at Windsor. The unfortunate Minister was impeached on forty-four charges, and sentenced to imprisonment along with forfeiture of lands and goods.

His Partial Restoration and Second Disgrace.

But the king's resentment soon subsided; and Wolsey received a royal pardon, and a portion of his revenues were restored to him; but he was required to reside at York, the archbishopric of which was the only dignity that he was allowed to retain. Adversity did not cure the disgraced Minister of his love of magnificence, thus drawing on him again the king's displeasure. In 1530 his enemies caused him to be arrested on a charge of high treason, in setting up a foreign court in the kingdom; and he was arrested at York by the Earl of Northumberland.

His Sad End.

In charge of Master Kingston, the Constable of the Tower, Wolsey started on his last journey to London; but on the way he was seized with a violent fever, brought on by anxiety and grief at his fall. Upon arriving at Leicester Abbey, on the third day of the journey, Saturday night, November 26, 1530, Wolsey was conscious that his end was approaching, and he said to the abbot, who came to the gate to give him a kindly welcome: "My father, I am come hither to leave my bones among you." He was lifted from his mule and was carried to his bed, which he never left alive. He died three days later,

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November 29, 1530; after addressing the Constable of the Tower in these ever memorable and affecting words: "Had I but served God as diligently as I have served the king, He would not have given me over in my gray hairs."

Commentary Thereon.

Such was the sad end of the once great and all-powerful Cardinal Wolsey —a striking illustration of the vanity of earthly glory. Henry VIII., whose ingratitude was the basest of his many faults, could crush long-tried and faithful servants with as little feeling as if he were treading upon the meanest reptile. The genius of Shakespeare has crystallized Wolsey's last words as though he were addressing the only friend who did not desert him, Sir Thomas Cromwell, in these words:

> "O Cromwell, Cromwell,
> Had I but served my God with half the zeal
> I served my king, He would not in mine age
> Have left me naked to mine enemies."

Henry VIII. and Thomas Cranmer.

In the meantime King Henry VIII. was collecting the opinions of learned men on the subject of his divorce; but the clergy made one delay after another, and two more years passed without resulting in any progress. Just before Wolsey's disgrace and fall, two of the king's servants, Gardiner and Fox, accidentally fell in company with Thomas Cranmer, a fellow of Jesus College at Cambridge, with whom they conversed on the subject of the king's divorce. Cranmer at first refrained from expressing any opinion; but, when pressed, said that he would waste no time in negotiating with the Pope, but would propose to the most learned men in Europe this plain question: "Can a man marry his brother's widow?" This hint so impressed the two doctors that they reported it to the king, who said bluntly, with an oath: "Cranmer has got the right sow by the ear." Henry VIII. at once took Cranmer into his service and engaged him to write a book in favor of the divorce.

The Divorce Question.

Cranmer's proposition to submit the question of the king's divorce to all the universities of Europe suggested to Henry VIII. a way toward the solution of the vexed question. If the universities answered that a man might marry his brother's widow, the king's conscience would be relieved; if their advice was for divorce, the Pope would be unable to resist their decision. The Pope threatened to excommunicate Henry VIII. in case he divorced Catharine of Aragon and married Anne Boleyn; but the great universities of Europe mainly decided in the English king's favor. In the meantime the course of events in England, along with the bold advice of Sir Thomas Cromwell, his new Secretary of State, led Henry VIII. to more decisive action.

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Archbishop Cranmer and the King's Divorce.

In 1533 Cranmer was made Archbishop of Canterbury, and he at once proceeded to try the question of divorce. A court was convened; and, after a fortnight passed in hearing arguments, sentence of divorce was pronounced, declaring that the marriage was not valid from the beginning, and that Mary, the daughter of Henry VIII. and Catharine of Aragon, was illegitimate, and therefore not an heir to the English crown. The poor queen retired to Ampthill, and Henry VIII. was publicly married to Anne Boleyn. The Princess Elizabeth was born in 1533—an event celebrated with splendor and rejoicing.

His Marriage with Anne Boleyn.

Action of Pope Clement VII.

The intelligence of the court's sentence created commotion at Rome. Pope Clement VII. was at first doubtful as to what action he should take; but he at length issued an angry edict, declaring the king's marriage with Catharine of Aragon to be valid. The divorced queen, who had resisted to the utmost the disgrace and injustice heaped upon her, died in 1536, honored for her virtues and her piety.

Sir Thomas Cromwell.

The Pope soon perceived the great political error which he had committed. Sir Thomas Cromwell, the new Secretary of State, who had served Cardinal Wolsey with such fidelity, was a staunch friend of the Reformation; and Henry VIII. chose him because of his abilities and his bold, decisive character, as the king needed such an ally in the contest which his divorce and second marriage involved him with the Pope. Perceiving clearly that nothing was to be hoped for from the Pope, Cromwell advised King Henry VIII. to declare himself Head of the Church in England; and the king promptly acted on this advice.

The English Clergy and the Statute of Præmunire.

The English bishops and higher clergy prepared to resist the king's action; but Henry VIII. determined to punish them for violation of the Statute of Præmunire, passed in the time of Edward III. and Wycliffe, which forbade any English subject to yield supreme obedience to a foreign potentate, and this applied to the Pope. Most of the clergy had been guilty of the violation of that statute by their submission to the papal legate's court in England—the crime for which Wolsey had been condemned.

Henry VIII. as Head of the Church of England.

The English clergy only obtained pardon by paying a fine of one hundred and eighteen thousand eight hundred and forty pounds sterling, and by acknowledging that the king was the "Protector and Supreme Head of the Church and clergy of England"—an acknowledgment which they qualified by the clause "in so far as is permitted by the laws of Christ." By this measure Henry VIII. struck a decisive blow at the connection between the English Church and the Pope, and laid the foundation of the complete independence of that Church.

The English king next proceeded to annul the Pope's claim to tribute and obedience from England, and to put a stop to the pay-

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His Anti-papal Measures. ment of the large sums of money which the Pope annually drew from England; and Parliament passed a statute forbidding any appeals from English subjects to the Pope or to any person outside the realm. Monasteries and nunneries in England were subjected to inspection and control by the king's officers. Bishops were to be appointed by the clergy attached to their cathedrals, upon receiving letters of permission from the king.

Sir Thomas More's Resignation. These measures led to the resignation of the Chancellor, Sir Thomas More, one of the best of Englishmen and a devoted Roman Catholic. The king received his resignation with regret, as he sincerely esteemed him; but proceeded in his efforts. Finally, in 1534, the English Parliament passed the *Act of Supremacy*, by which the King of England was declared the Supreme Head of the Church of England, thus making the English Church thoroughly independent of the Pope. The Act of Supremacy made it high treason for any English subject to deny that the King of England was "the Supreme Head on earth of the Church of England."

Act of Supremacy.

Progress of the English Reformation. Though the English Reformation was immediately brought about by personal and selfish motives, this decisive movement had a far deeper origin, and had been precipitated by the discussions concerning the king's marriage. The Pope's irresolution shook the faith of many who gladly would have considered him infallible; and the question was propounded: "If Pope Clement *will* not decide when England's welfare is at stake, where is his justice? If he *can* not, where is his infallibility?" In spite of the Statute of Heretics, now rigorously executed, the hearts of the common people of England were more and more alienated from the Catholic Church.

Sir Thomas More and Bishop Fisher. A number of English Roman Catholics refused to acknowledge the king's ecclesiastical supremacy, and among these were Sir Thomas More and Fisher, Bishop of Rochester. They thus made themselves guilty of high treason. Neither would they recognize the exclusion of the Princess Mary as her father's successor. Sir Thomas More and Bishop Fisher were sent as prisoners to the Tower. A little later the prophecies of a Kentish nun produced a Catholic insurrection in England, but this outbreak was soon quelled and the nun's imposture was exposed. The monks of the Charter House, in London—a brotherhood famous in that corrupt age for the purity and beneficence of their lives—were many of them executed on the scaffold, while others died of fever and starvation in loathsome prisons.

Execution of Charter House Monks.

Sir Thomas More and Bishop Fisher Beheaded. Determined to strike a final and decisive blow at the papal party in England, Henry VIII. caused Sir Thomas More and Bishop Fisher to be tried, condemned and beheaded for high treason, in 1535. The good bishop mounted the scaffold with a copy of the New Testament

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in his hand, and as he knelt to lay his head upon the block he read the words: "This is life eternal to know Thee, the only true God."

More's Life and Character.

England lost one of the most admirable men of his time in the execution of Sir Thomas More, who was distinguished for his brilliant genius, his wonderful learning, his ardent piety and the sweetness of his domestic life. He had been a lifelong reformer; but he had labored to reform the Church by remaining in it, and not to accomplish such reformation by separating from the old organization. He sincerely believed the Pope to be the Head of the Christian Church by Divine appointment, and for that reason he had resigned the office of Chancellor when Henry VIII. assumed the supremacy of the English Church. It is said that the Emperor Charles V. remarked, upon hearing of More's execution: "I would rather have lost the best city in my dominions than so worthy a counselor."

His Utopia.

Sir Thomas More was the author of a romance, entitled *Utopia*, meaning *Nowhere*, in which he satirizes the faults and oppressions of his own age and country, and depicts a perfect society and ideal commonwealth, which an imaginary companion of Amerigo Vespucci, deserted on the American continent, found somewhere in the wilds. This ideal place had wide and cleanly streets, comfortable houses, a system of public schools in which every child received a good education, perfect religious toleration and universal suffrage, though with a family and not an individual ballot; and the sole object of the government was the welfare of the entire people, and not the pleasure of the king.

Quarrel of Henry VIII. with Pope Paul III.

Bishop Fisher had been made a cardinal by the Pope during his imprisonment; and Pope Paul III., upon hearing of his execution, excommunicated King Henry VIII., declared him deposed from his throne and laid England under an interdict. The king retaliated by causing those of his subjects who had been chiefly instrumental in procuring the excommunication and interdict to be arrested, tried and beheaded for high treason. Thus speech against the Pope was no longer heresy in England.

The English Church under Henry VIII.

King Henry VIII. was now the only Pope legally recognized in England, and all ecclesiastical as well as civil power was vested in him. He dictated the sermons of the pulpit, as well as the enactments of Parliament. He controlled the ecclesiastical as well as the civil courts. He declared what was truth and what was heresy. He appointed and removed bishops and archbishops at his pleasure. The vast revenues that had flowed so steadily from England to the Vatican for centuries were now poured into his coffers. No priest could preach in England without a royal license, and no license was issued without the Oath of Supremacy. Every English priest was compelled to declare to his assembled parish their absolution from allegiance to the

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Pope, and their duty of obedience to their king as Head of the Church of England.

Peaceful Character of the English Reformation.

Thus the silent and bewildered English people, constrained by respect for law on the one hand and by reverence for religion on the other, were carried peacefully through the first and most critical crisis of a momentous religious revolution. In other countries the Reformation advanced only through a sea of blood. The peace and order that characterized the Reformation in England were vastly due to the overshadowing character of the throne and the iron will of the despot who occupied it.

Subserviency of Parliament.

The English Parliament removed the last vestige of a limitation to the royal authority by enacting that royal proclamations should have the force of statutes. It is said that if, during the sessions of Parliament, the king's name were only mentioned in his absence, the members would rise and bow before the vacant throne. Upon one occasion, when the House of Commons did not pass a law granting a supply as speedily as Henry VIII. desired, the king sent for Edward Montague, one of the most influential members of that branch of Parliament, who, when introduced to His Majesty, was greeted with these words: "Ho! man! will they not pass my bill?" Then laying one of his hands on Montague's head, as the subservient member of the Commons was on his knees before him, the tyrannical king exclaimed: "Get my bill passed by to-morrow, or else to-morrow this head of yours shall be off!" The bill was passed within the appointed time.

Henry VIII. and Edward Montague.

The Reform and Catholic Parties.

Thus far King Henry VIII. had been obliged by his own necessities in his struggle with the Pope to move forward with the English Reformers. He was vastly indebted to the Reformation for the success of his divorce proceedings, but the Reformation owed him very little. Though Archbishop Cranmer and Sir Thomas Cromwell had not yet openly renounced the Catholic doctrines, they sought steadily to lead the king into measures favorable to the Reformers; while the Duke of Norfolk and the other leaders of the Catholic party in England endeavored to encourage the king's devotion to the Roman faith and to prevent a renunciation of the Catholic doctrines by the English Church, but they were struggling against the logic of events.

Tyndale's Bible.

The Bible had been made accessible to the English people, and was doing its work among them rapidly and decisively. William Tyndale had translated the Scriptures into English in 1526, and this translation was published in the Netherlands. Its circulation was forbidden in England under severe penalties; but there was a great demand for it, and it was read, in spite of the stringent laws against it. It was every day becoming more apparent that the English people were weakening in their belief in the cardinal doctrine of the Roman Catholic

Transubstantiation.

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Church—the doctrine of transubstantiation; while the doctrine of justification by faith was becoming stronger.

Religious Persecution in England.

The fires of persecution were again lighted in England, and Protestants died the deaths of martyrs at the stake. Henry VIII. relentlessly punished both Catholics and Lutherans, the former for upholding the Pope's supremacy against the king's in England, and the latter for denying the doctrines of the Roman Catholic Church. He still retained his early detestation of Luther and his doctrines.

Archbishop Cranmer and the Bible.

But the English Reformers were proceeding forward beyond the point which Luther had reached, and were establishing the doctrines of their Church far in advance of his. Archbishop Cranmer, sensible of the influence of the Scriptures upon their readers, caused both houses of the convocation to pass a resolution in 1536 requesting the king to appoint learned men to translate the Scriptures for circulation among the English people. The Primate was warmly supported in this enterprise by Queen Anne and by Sir Thomas Cromwell; and the result was that the king sanctioned William Tyndale's translation of the Bible, as revised by Miles Coverdale in 1535, and supposed to have been printed at Zurich, in Switzerland. This result, which was accomplished by Cranmer in 1536, was an immense gain for the English Reformers.

Tyndale's and Coverdale's Versions.

Church Services in the English Language.

Archbishop Cranmer very much desired that the public service of the Church should be in English instead of Latin, but he was very well aware that Henry VIII. would violently oppose such an innovation. He therefore considered it the best policy to lead to the desired change by degrees; and he gradually obtained the king's permission to have the Decalogue, the Lord's Prayer and the new Church creed read in English in the churches, and to be taught in every school and family. A copy of the English Bible, as translated by William Tyndale and Miles Coverdale, was ordered to be chained to the pillar or desk of every church in England, and to be open to the reading of all. In 1539 Archbishop Cranmer made a new English translation of the Bible.

Public Interest.

When these Bibles appeared they were thankfully received by the English people, who flocked to the churches, where they could hear the holy book read; and a great number learned to read for the sole purpose of perusing the sacred volume. The great increase in the number of books, through the invention of the art of printing, had produced a taste for reading among the English.

Creed of the English Church.

The king drew up the articles of religion, which showed that he had taken a middle ground between Protestants and Papists. These articles of religion made the Bible the sole standard of faith in England; reduced the sacraments from seven to three—penance, baptism and the

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Eucharist; retained transubstantiation and confession, but added justification by faith; and rejected pilgrimages, purgatory, indulgences, the worship of images and relics, and masses for the dead.

Henry VIII. and Archbishop Cranmer.

Archbishop Cranmer, the only one of the servants of Henry VIII. who retained the king's favor from first to last, by his integrity of character, and not by obsequiousness or sycophancy, had no selfish views of his own; but his soul was occupied with one grand object—the reformation of religion. Wolsey's great abilities were solely employed in elevating himself to the highest earthly dignity. Sir Thomas Cromwell, though a zealous Reformer, was intent on enriching himself from the pillage of the religious houses in England. But Cranmer's character was so destitute of ambition and covetousness that he at first declined the Primacy, and finally accepted it only because he hoped that it would give him better means of advancing the cause which he had at heart. Cranmer's timidity betrayed him into some weaknesses, but his virtue awed the tyrannical king, who usually contrived to send him to a distance when he was about to perpetrate any flagrant act. The king's regard for the good archbishop was always sincere.

Anne Boleyn's Fall.

In the meantime the English Reformers suffered a severe loss in the execution of the queen, Anne Boleyn, who was inclined to their doctrines and exerted her influence with her royal husband in their behalf. Her enjoyment of a crown was of short duration. Her French manners and vivacity, which had so charmed Henry VIII. before her marriage, became displeasing to him after she became his wife, so that his passion for her cooled and he became indifferent to her. Her enemies—the entire Catholic party in England—exerted themselves to widen the breach between her and her royal husband; and in this they were finally successful.

Her Arrest, Trial, Conviction and Condemnation.

Henry VIII. was induced to believe that his consort was unfaithful to him, and he caused her to be arrested and imprisoned in the Tower, May 2, 1536. She now paid dearly for her brief exaltation. Accused of a crime of which she was innocent, she was not permitted to see her friends, and was surrounded by her most inveterate enemies. After a mock trial by a jury of peers, in which she was allowed no counsel, she was pronounced guilty and sentenced to death. Her marriage was also declared void; and her daughter Elizabeth, afterward queen, was declared incapable of inheriting the English crown.

Her Fortitude.

On the morning of her execution she sent for Kingston, the Constable of the Tower; and when he entered her prison she said: "Mr. Kingston, I hear I am not to die till noon, and I am sorry for it; for I thought to be dead before this time, and free from a life of pain." The Constable of the Tower sought to comfort her by assuring her that her pain would be very little; whereupon she replied: "I have heard the executioner is

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very expert; and (clasping her neck with her hands, laughing) I have but a little neck."

Her Execution.

When brought to the scaffold, she would not inflame the minds of the spectators present against her persecutors, because of a consideration of her daughter Elizabeth's welfare; but contented herself with saying: "I am come to die as I am sentenced by the law." She refused to accuse any one or to say anything of the charge upon which she had been condemned. She prayed heartily for the king, and called him "a most merciful and gentle prince," and said that he had always been to her "a good and gracious sovereign," and that if any one should think proper to canvass her cause she desired him to judge the best. She was beheaded on the Tower green by the executioner of Calais, who was brought over to London because he was more expert than any headsman in England.

Hume's Remark.

Says Hume, concerning the fate of the unfortunate Anne Bolcyn: "The innocence of this unfortunate queen cannot reasonably be called in question. Henry himself, in the violence of his rage, knew not whom to accuse as her lover; and though he imputed guilt to her brother and four persons more, he was able to bring proof against none of them."

The King's Third Wife, Jane Seymour.

The real fact was that Henry VIII. was tired of Anne Boleyn and was anxious to get rid of her, as she stood in the way of his gratification of a new passion. On the very day after her execution he married Jane Seymour, the daughter of Sir Thomas Seymour, a Wiltshire knight. This third wife of Henry VIII. died the next year, 1537, a few days after having given birth to a son named Edward.

Henry VIII. and Princess Mary.

The execution of Anne Boleyn led to a reconciliation between Henry VIII. and the Princess Mary, his daughter with his first wife, Catharine of Aragon. He required her to acknowledge his supremacy as Head of the English Church and to admit the illegality of her mother's marriage. She was twenty years of age and a proud-spirited woman; but, as she knew her father's disposition too well to resist his demands, and as she was aware that her own safety depended upon her acquiescence, she wrote him a letter admitting his claims, and was therefore received into his favor.

Suppression of the Monasteries and Nunneries in England.

Acting upon Archbishop Cranmer's advice, King Henry VIII. took another decisive step—the suppression of the religious houses in England. A commission was appointed to visit the religious houses. This commission reported most of them as corrupt and immoral, besides being centers of baneful idleness and of unremitting opposition and unrelenting hostility to the crown. But the king proceeded with caution. A statute of Parliament suppressed the lesser monasteries and nunneries in 1536, and the greater religious houses were closed in 1538. As the "Black Book," which reported the conduct of the monks and

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nuns, was read in Parliament, cries resounded from all sides: "Down with them! down with them!" Thus the monasteries and nunneries were completely broken up in England, and the monks and nuns were turned out into the world, ten thousand nuns alone being made homeless by the cruel statute.

Catholic Rebellion in the North of England.

The suppression of the monasteries and nunneries in England produced much discontent and some disorder. The bounty of these religious houses had fed multitudes of paupers, who were no more able to earn an honest living than were the monks and nuns themselves. In the northern counties of England, where the people adhered to the Catholic religion, a hundred thousand persons took up arms and undertook what they called a "Pilgrimage of Grace." They took possession of all the towns and castles north of the Humber. A "Parliament of the North" assembled at Pontefract, demanded the reëstablishment of the papal supremacy over England, the restoration of the Princess Mary to her rights as heiress to the English crown, and the overthrow of Sir Thomas Cromwell. The insurgents set out from Yorkshire for London, to force the king to comply with their conditions. The king was obliged to take the field against the malcontents, and the rebellion was suppressed with terrible cruelty. Four great abbots were hanged and the last of the old feudal chiefs were beheaded.

Its Suppression.

Confiscation of Monastic Wealth.

All the rentals, gold, silver and other property of the religious houses were confiscated. The abbots were pensioned, and a part of their revenues was expended in founding schools, colleges and six new bishoprics; but a considerable portion enriched the king's courtiers and favorites. The king's greed for the wealth of the Church may have been the principal motive for this cruel proceeding.

Pillage of the Tombs and Shrines of the Saints.

Henry VIII. next caused the tombs and shrines of the saints to be robbed of their costly works of art and enormous treasures; and these shrines, so long the objects of adoration and rich with the gifts of numberless pilgrims, were ruthlessly destroyed after being plundered of their wealth. The most famous of these shrines was that of Thomas à Becket, or St. Thomas of Canterbury, from which two immense chests of gold and jewels were carried away to the royal coffers. Not satisfied with robbing Becket's shrine, Henry VIII. proceeded to uncanonize that revered saint and martyr, declaring that he was no saint and that he had died as a rebel and a traitor.

Excommunication of Henry VIII. by Pope Paul III.

These acts of King Henry VIII. caused Pope Paul III. to excommunicate him, to pronounce his dethronement, to lay England under an interdict and to absolve the English people from their allegiance to their king. The Pope called upon the English nobles and people to take up arms against their sovereign, declared him infamous, and commanded all the monarchs of Christendom to make war upon him and

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to seize such of his subjects as they were able to get into their power and hold them as slaves.

Its Powerless Effect.

The Pope's efforts produced no effect in England; as the Reformers were too strong and the king's power was too great, and the exposures of the fraud and corruption of the Roman Church, in connection with the suppression of the monasteries and nunneries, had disgusted the English people so thoroughly that the Catholic party could not hope for a successful rebellion; while England was too formidable for any foreign power to desire to make war upon her by an invasion of her own soil, and the Pope's spiritual weapons had lost their force.

Catholic Conspirators and Their Execution.

Cardinal Pole, a grandson of George, Duke of Clarence, and a kinsman of King Henry VIII., was residing abroad at that time, and exerted himself to his utmost to instigate the monarchs of Continental Europe to make war upon England, but failed in these efforts. His elder brother, Lord Montague, and his aged mother, the Countess of Salisbury, the last of the direct line of the Plantagenets, and their kinsman, the Marquis of Exeter, along with some others, were detected in a treasonable correspondence with him, and were arrested, tried, convicted and beheaded.

The Six Articles.

Although Henry VIII. had gone to such extremes in renouncing the Pope's authority in England, he was still sincerely attached to the Catholic faith. In 1539 he united with the Catholic party and drew up the *Six Articles*, by which he struck a direct blow at the English Reformers. Henry VIII. exerted all his despotic power to compel his subjects to accept these articles.

Temporary Catholic Reaction.

The statute embracing these articles was called by Fox "the whip with six strings." It was largely the result of a Catholic reaction in consequence of the excesses of the radical Reformers, and it reaffirmed the cardinal doctrines of the Roman Church. The bloody statute imposed the penalty of death by fire upon all who violated it. The English prisons were rapidly filled with offenders. Catholics perished at the stake for not accepting the Protestant head of the English Church, and Protestants likewise suffered martyrdom for rejecting the Catholic faith. But the execution of this terrible statute was relaxed after a few months, and the king permitted every householder to have an English Bible in his family.

First English Reign of Terror.

The ten years of Sir Thomas Cromwell's administration (A. D. 1530–1540) have been known as the *First English Reign of Terror*. Opinion itself was made treason, and a man's refusal to reveal his inmost thoughts was considered evidence of crime. Sir Thomas Cromwell, Wolsey's faithful friend to the last and the son of a blacksmith, had risen by the force of his natural talents from the humble rank of a private soldier to the dignity of Secretary of State.

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Henry VIII. and Anne of Cleves.

King Henry VIII., who had now been a widower for three years after having been thrice married, desired a fourth wife; but there were some who thought that the dignity of queen might be paid for too dearly. One lady whom he asked sent him a refusal, saying that she had but one head, and that if she had two she might venture to marry him. Sir Thomas Cromwell desired that the king should marry a Protestant princess of Germany, and showed him a portrait of Anne of Cleves. Henry VIII. was so much pleased with the picture that he sent to demand the princess in marriage.

She Becomes His Fourth Wife.

When Anne of Cleves arrived in England, Henry VIII. found that she was so unlike the picture that he was with difficulty persuaded to marry her. The marriage occurred in 1540. When the king discovered that his new wife was ignorant and stupid, and that she could speak only the German language, he become so disgusted with her that he sought a pretext for divorce.

Disgrace and Execution of Sir Thomas Cromwell.

The king never forgave Sir Thomas Cromwell for his blunder in procuring so unacceptable a bride for him; and the Duke of Norfolk and the other Catholic leaders determined to take advantage of the king's resentment to procure Cromwell's destruction. That famous Minister was cordially hated by the old nobles as a low-born upstart, and by the whole Catholic party for his conspicuous share in the destruction of the monasteries, which had acquired for him the title of the "Hammer of the Monks." Cromwell was arrested and tried for heresy and treason; and, though neither charge could be proven, he was condemned and beheaded without a hearing, July 28, 1540—in the language of the Council, being "judged by the bloody laws he has himself made." His only crime was the extreme zeal with which he supported the king's tyranny.

The King's Divorce from Anne of Cleves.

Six months after his marriage with Anne of Cleves, Henry VIII. obtained his divorce from her; Parliament most obsequiously annulling the marriage, and Anne meekly consenting to the separation and accepting a liberal pension and a fine palace in England in place of the queenly dignity. She remained in England for the rest of her life, and outlived Henry VIII. by ten years.

His Fifth Wife, Catharine Howard.

In the meantime Henry VIII. had become enamored of Catharine Howard, a niece of the Duke of Norfolk, the leader of the Catholic party in England; and she became the king's fifth wife in less than two weeks after his divorce from Anne of Cleves. The king was so much pleased with the wit and agreeableness of his new queen that he caused a thanksgiving prayer to be offered for his happy marriage; but in about a year and a half he discovered that she had not only been unchaste before marriage, but that her conduct still continued shamefully bad. The king was obliged to sign her death-warrant, and she

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was beheaded on Tower Hill, February 12, 1542, along with several of her paramours, one of whom had been the chief accuser of Anne Boleyn. **Her Execution.**

The execution of Sir Thomas Cromwell and the king's marriage with Catharine Howard restored the Catholic party to power in England; but the Papist leaders did not dare to proceed in the course which they had marked out as Romanists, as they would have lost their influence with the king by such an avowal. They therefore maintained their influence over him as believers in transubstantiation. The Six Articles were enforced with the utmost rigor, and in 1543 the general permission to read the Bible was revoked. Only the higher classes, or merchants, who were householders, were permitted to read it; the common people being denied that privilege. **Catholic Party Restored to Power in England.**

In 1536 Wales was incorporated with England, and received English laws and privileges; and in 1542 Ireland was created a kingdom, after the English authority had been strengthened in that country. Henry VIII. paid great attention to his navy and brought it to a high state of efficiency. During his reign serfdom was finally abolished in England. **Wales and Ireland.** **The Navy.**

In the meantime Henry VIII. had been seeking to draw Scotland into closer relations with England; but King James V. of Scotland, who was a Roman Catholic, had no desire for an alliance with his uncle, the English king, whom he considered the great enemy of the Roman Church. Vexed at his failure, Henry VIII. declared war against Scotland in 1542. Hoping to anticipate him, James V. sent ten thousand troops across the border into England, but this Scottish army was routed by only five hundred English at Solway Moss. James V. died of grief and shame at this humiliation, December 14, 1542, leaving the Scottish crown to his infant daughter, Mary Stuart. **War with Scotland.** **Battle of Solway Moss.** **Death of James V. of Scotland.**

Henry VIII., earnestly desiring a union of the two kingdoms, negotiated a marriage between his son Edward and the infant Scottish princess; but the queen-mother of Scotland and the regent of that kingdom, the Earl of Arran, who were Roman Catholics, resolved to disregard this treaty. The King of England attempted to enforce the treaty, and sent an army into Scotland for that purpose, under the command of the Earl of Hertford, the brother of Jane Seymour, the third wife of Henry VIII. The English army ravaged Scotland and sacked and burned Edinburgh. **Royal Marriage Treaty.** **English Invasion of Scotland.**

As the Catholic party in Scotland thwarted the proposed marriage by forming a closer alliance with France, Henry VIII., enraged at his failure, entered into an alliance with the Emperor Charles V. in a war against Francis I. of France. In 1544 Henry VIII. invaded France and took Boulogne after a short siege; but peace was made with France **War with France.** **Peace.**

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and Scotland in 1546, by which Boulogne was to be restored to France eight years later upon the payment of a ransom to the English.

The King's Sixth Wife, Catharine Parr.

In 1543 Henry VIII. married his sixth and last wife, Catharine Parr, the widow of Lord Latimer, a woman of sense and discretion, who outlived him. She was a Protestant at heart and favorably disposed toward the Reformers. Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester, one of the Catholic leaders, and his party, eagerly sought to bring about her destruction.

Anne Askew's Martyrdom.

They succeeded with the king in causing Anne Askew, one of the new queen's maids of honor, to die a martyr's death by burning, for denying the doctrine of transubstantiation; but they failed in their efforts to wring from the condemned woman some confession damaging to the queen.

Thunder-storm on the Day of Martyrdom.

Anne Askew and those who suffered martyrdom with her perished with heroic fortitude. A thunder-storm which appeared at the time excited the superstitious feelings of both the friends and enemies of the condemned; the Protestants regarding it as a manifestation of the Divine wrath in consequence of the cruel fate of the martyrs; while the Catholics considered it a manifestation of the Divine vengeance for the heretical doctrines of the condemned, and shouted: "They are damned! they are damned!"

Henry VIII. and Archbishop Cranmer.

The Papist leaders, Gardiner and the Duke of Norfolk, enraged by their failure to wring a confession from Anne Askew damaging to the new queen, sought to encompass the destruction of Archbishop Cranmer. They endeavored to persuade the king that the Primate and his learned men were destroying the kingdom with heresy, and asked for his commitment to the Tower; but Henry VIII., whose thorough attachment to, and sincere regard for, Cranmer remained unshaken, allowed the Papist leaders to proceed far enough to show the good archbishop who were his enemies and who his friends, and then sternly forbade them to raise a hand against the Primate, whom he declared to be faithful and true. Thenceforth the queen and the Primate were safe from the attacks of the Papist party.

Religious Martyrs.

Henry VIII. continued zealous against both Papists and Protestants, and many of both parties perished at the same stake. All who denied the king's ecclesiastical supremacy in his kingdom were deemed heretics in religion and traitors to their king and country. As the king required his subjects to make his opinion their standard of faith, and as he was constantly changing his opinion and causing contradictory laws to be enacted, his subjects found it difficult to steer a safe course amid the perils with which his tyrannical caprice surrounded them.

Catharine Parr's Peril.

Henry VIII. was vain of his theological knowledge, and even engaged in public discussions with those who were accused of heresy. Theology was his favorite subject of conversation, but woe to such as had the

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audacity to differ with him. Upon one occasion his last wife, Catharine Parr, expressed herself rather too freely in favor of the Protestant doctrines; and the king, provoked that she should presume to differ with him, complained to Gardiner about the queen's obstinacy. The bigoted Papist leader sought to widen the breach between the king and the queen, and finally persuaded the king to consent that the queen should be publicly accused and tried for heresy.

Her Narrow Escape.

With so capricious a monarch as Henry VIII. it was hazardous for any officer to sign the articles; as it was high treason—a capital offense—for any subject to slander the queen. The paper which was prepared for the king's signature fell into the hands of the queen's friends by some means, and she was apprised of her peril. Relying on her prudence and address to thwart the machinations of her enemies, she paid her customary visit to her royal husband, and found him more placid than she had expected.

Her Adroitness and Its Success.

On this occasion the king at once entered upon his favorite topic of discussion, and apparently challenged the queen to an argument; but she gently declined the conversation, saying that such profound speculations were not suited to her sex, that she was blessed with a husband who was qualified by his judgment and learning to choose principles for his own family and for the wisest and most learned in the kingdom, and that she found conversation liable to languish when there was no opposition, and for that reason she sometimes ventured to differ with him merely to give him the pleasure of refuting her. Thereupon the king replied: "And is it so? then we are perfect friends again."

Her Reconciliation with Her Royal Husband.

The Papist leaders were unaware of the change in the king's feelings toward his wife, and prepared the next day to send her to the Tower. The royal couple were conversing amicably in the garden when the Chancellor appeared with forty of his retinue. The king spoke to the Chancellor at some distance from the queen, and seemed to be angry with him. She overheard the epithets "knave," "fool," "beast," etc., which the king lavishly addressed to the magistrate. When the king returned to his wife she sought to mitigate his anger, whereupon he replied: "Poor soul! you know not how ill entitled this man is to your good offices." Queen Catharine Parr was very careful never again to contradict her royal husband, and Gardiner was unable ever to regain the good opinion of His Majesty.

The Oxford Reformers.

The entire reign of Henry VIII. is noted as an era of learning and as the period of the Oxford Reformers. Though fond of pleasure and display, Henry VIII. was scholarly in his tastes and well educated, and carefully fostered the new spirit of enterprise and mental activity among his subjects. Learning now became fashionable in England.

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The nobles paid great regard to men of knowledge. Individuals of the highest rank and of both sexes aspired to be able to speak and write pure Latin, which was considered a polite accomplishment.

Learned Works.

The greatest scholars of the age were engaged in writing grammars, vocabularies, colloquies and other works, to aid the illiterate in acquiring knowledge. Cardinal Wolsey is said to have written the preface to a grammar, which is still used in England, prepared by William Lilly, whose great scholarship was the means of making him the first master of St. Paul's School, then just founded in London.

Colet and Erasmus, and the New Learning.

Colet, whom Henry VII. had created Dean of St. Paul's, became the head of a new school for the study of Latin and Greek literature during the reign of Henry VIII. By the invitation of Cardinal Wolsey, the renowned scholar, Desiderius Erasmus, of Rotterdam, in Holland, came to England and received a professorship in the University of Cambridge. These zealous pioneers of the New Learning vigorously applied themselves to the work of reform, but found it difficult to persuade the people that a knowledge of the Greek language was either agreeable or useful. The monks considered the Greek language fit only to be spoken by the devil in the bad place, and when the study of this language was introduced into the University of Oxford the students in that renowned seat of learning divided into hostile factions, which frequently came to blows.

Factions among Oxford Students.

These parties among the Oxford students acquired the names of Greeks and Trojans, and sometimes fought with as much animosity as the ancient peoples whose respective names they bore had done several thousand years before. After a new and more correct method for pronouncing Greek had been introduced, the party of the Greeks themselves became rent into factions; the Catholics adhering to the old pronunciation, while the Protestants adopted the new. Bishop Gardiner declared that rather than permit the liberty of choosing the pronunciation of the Greek alphabet it were better to banish the study of the Greek language from the universities; and, under his influence, the king caused the use of the new pronunciation to be forbidden, on penalty of whipping and other ignominious punishments.

Erasmus and His Works.

With a moral courage reminding one of Wycliffe, Erasmus wrote book after book advocating a reformation in politics and religion as well as in learning, ridiculing the follies of the age, exposing the corruptions of the Church to scorn and contempt, and addressing strong and affecting appeals to men's consciences. In his *Praise of Folly*, Erasmus represents Folly, dressed in cap and bells, as describing, in a speech to her associates, the religious teachers of the time, the old school men, as " men who knew all about things of which St. Paul was ignorant, could talk science as though they had been consulted when

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the world was made, could give you dimensions of heaven as though they had been there and measured it with plumb and line, men who professed universal knowledge and yet had not time to read the Gospels or the Epistles of St. Paul."

His New Testament.

The work of Erasmus which had the most potent influence was his edition of the New Testament in parallel columns, one in Greek and the other in Latin. So great was the popular demand for this work that several editions were required. In speaking of the Scriptures, Erasmus said in his preface: "I wish that they were translated into all languages, so as to be read and understood not only by Scots and Irishmen, but even by Saracens and Turks. I long for the day when the husbandman shall sing portions of them to himself as he follows the plough, when the weaver shall hum them to the tune of his shuttle, when the traveler shall while away with their stories the weariness of his journey."

Opposition to the Oxford Reformers

For a period of forty years the Oxford Reformers were engaged in educating the English people to a higher degree of intelligence, and in preparing the way for the greater religious Reformation that followed. The old school men and theologians bitterly opposed the Oxford Reformers at every step. Sir Thomas More once wrote to Colet: "No wonder your school raises a storm, for it is like the wooden horse filled with armed Greeks for the destruction of Troy." And such was the case. That school became so popular that others of the same character were founded; and it is said that more schools were founded in the last years of the reign of Henry VIII. than in three centuries before.

Henry VIII. and Colet.

Efforts were frequently made to destroy Colet—once, when, from the royal pulpit and in the king's very presence, he denounced the wars which Henry VIII. was waging against Francis I. of France; and again, when, at a convocation of bishops and clergy, after having been appointed to preach the opening sermon, he boldly accused many of them of leading worldly and immoral lives. The Bishops of London and others charged him with heresy; but Henry VIII. bluffly replied to those who sought his aid against Colet: "Let every man have his own doctor, but this man is the doctor for me."

Henry VIII. and the New Learning.

The Oxford Reformers owed their safety to the king's protection, and the New Learning was indebted to him for its rapid progress; but the very men whom he shielded from their most implacable enemies he did not hesitate to bring to the block to die by the headsman's ax when they offered the faintest opposition to his imperious will.

Henry VIII. and Hans Holbein.

Hans Holbein, the great Swiss painter, a native of Basle, was invited to England, where he flourished under the patronage of King Henry VIII., who employed him to paint the portraits of his wives, or those

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whom he intended to marry. He was twice sent to the continent of Europe, as the secret emissary of the king's love, to paint correct portraits of his intended wife; but the unmerited charms which his pencil imparted to Anne of Cleves, thus ensnaring his royal patron into a distasteful marriage, showed that he was not always a faithful messenger.

Holbein and the Nobleman.

As Hans Holbein was one day engaged in painting a lady's portrait for King Henry VIII., a nobleman entered the painter's room; but Holbein, offended at this intrusion, pushed the nobleman down stairs. The nobleman went direct to the king and complained loudly of the insult which he had suffered, and demanded redress; but the king replied: "It is I, in the person of Holbein, who have been insulted. I can, when I please, make seven lords of seven plowmen; but I cannot make one Holbein even of seven lords."

Last Years of Henry VIII.

In his later years Henry VIII. became very corpulent; and toward the end of his life he was afflicted with a painful disorder in one leg, which disabled him from walking and made him more furious than a chained lion. This infirmity so greatly increased the natural violence of his temper that everybody was afraid to come near him. Even his last wife, Catharine Parr, though she was his most attentive nurse, was harshly treated by him. Such were his tyranny and caprice that none could feel safe.

Arrest of the Duke of Norfolk and the Earl of Surrey.

Among the last acts of the tyrannical monarch was the arrest of the Duke of Norfolk and his son, the Earl of Surrey, on a charge of aspiring to the English crown. The Duke of Norfolk, formerly Earl of Surrey, was considered the greatest subject in the kingdom, and had been one of the king's earliest favorites. He had rendered great services to the crown, and had been rewarded with honors and estates. He was allied to the royal family by marriage in various ways. His son, Henry Howard, Earl of Surrey, was the most accomplished nobleman in the kingdom, and equally distinguished as a courtier, a soldier, a scholar, a poet and a liberal patron of literature and the fine arts.

Execution of the Earl of Surrey.

The Duke of Norfolk was the leader of the Catholic party in England, and his renowned son was also a zealous Catholic. The frivolous charges brought against them were of small consequence with the Parliaments and juries of this tyrannical reign. The Earl of Surrey was convicted of high treason, and was beheaded January 19, 1547. The Duke of Norfolk tried every concession to save his own life; but the despotic sovereign, as if thirsting for the blood of the distinguished nobleman, hastened the action of his subservient Parliament. The death-warrant was signed by the king January 27, 1547; but the capricious tyrant died the next day, and the warrant was never executed.

Escape of the Duke of Norfolk.

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Death of Henry VIII.

Such was the temper of Henry VIII. when he was at the point of death that no one dared to tell him the terrible truth. At last one mustered sufficient courage to inform the dying tyrant that his end was at hand, and asked him if a clergyman should be sent for. The expiring monarch replied: "If any, Cranmer." When the good archbishop arrived the king was speechless, but he knew Cranmer and pressed his hand just as he breathed his last. Thus died Henry VIII., January 28, 1547, in the fifty-sixth year of his age and the thirty-eighth of his reign. His lifelong rival, King Francis I. of France, survived him but two months.

His Earlier and Later Character

The capricious and tyrannical acts which have darkened the reign of Henry VIII. occurred during his last twenty years. Had he died when he was thirty-six years of age he would doubtless have ranked in history among the wisest and best of kings. But the possession of absolute power gradually turned his strong will into blind obstinacy, his wisdom into dogmatism, and even his religious sense of responsibility for the correct religious faith of his subjects into a motive for the most atrocious persecutions.

Provisions of His Will.

Though the Princesses Mary and Elizabeth had been declared incapable of inheriting the English crown, Henry VIII. appointed them in his will to the succession after their half-brother Edward in case that prince should die without issue. In case they all died without children he left the succession to the heirs of his youngest sister, the Duchess of Suffolk; thus excluding the heirs of his eldest sister, Margaret, who, after the death of her first husband, King James IV. of Scotland, had married the Earl of Angus, the head of the great Douglas family of Scotland.

FAMILY OF HENRY VIII.

WIVES.	CHILDREN.	
Catharine of Aragon, whom he divorced.	Edward, son of Jane Seymour, who succeeded his father.	
Anne Boleyn, whom he beheaded.		
Jane Seymour, who died a natural death.	Mary, daughter of Catharine of Aragon.	Afterward Queens of England.
Anne of Cleves, whom he divorced.		
Catharine Howard, whom he beheaded.	Elizabeth, daughter of Anne Boleyn.	
Catharine Parr, who outlived him.		

Edward VI., A. D 1547–1553.

Edward VI., the son of Henry VIII. and Jane Seymour, was a boy of nine years when he succeeded his father as King of England. Henry VIII. had appointed a Council of Regency, consisting of sixteen members, with Archbishop Cranmer at its head, to govern the kingdom until his son should reach the age of eighteen years. The Council of Regency disregarded the will of Henry VIII. by appointing

Duke of Somerset, Protector.

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one of its members, the Earl of Hertford, afterward Duke of Somerset, the boy king's eldest maternal uncle, to the office of Protector.

Protestant Council of Regency.

The new Protector assumed royal power and formed a new Council of Regency consisting wholly of Protestants. As he was a zealous friend of the Reformation, he took good care to place the young king in the charge of Protestant teachers; and he desired to make England thoroughly Protestant without resorting to violent changes or persecutions.

Good Character of Edward VI.

The boy king's love for study and early application already gave promise of his future capacity for government. He readily imbibed the opinions of his Protestant instructors, and he manifested a knowledge, zeal and piety very remarkable in a child of his age. His favorite study was theology, and his greatest delight was in listening to sermons. Latimer, who had suffered much during the reign of Henry VIII. for his zeal in behalf of the Reformation, was appointed the young king's preacher, and had a pulpit placed in one of the royal gardens, where Edward VI. delighted to sit and listen for hours to his long but eloquent sermons. The royal youth did not neglect his other studies. His Latin exercises have been preserved, and do him great credit. He was unequestionably possessed of abilities of a very high order; and he also endeared himself to all around him by his gentle disposition, so very much the reverse of that of his father.

His Learning, Zeal and Piety.

His Betrothal to Mary, Queen of Scots.

In the meantime the Reformation was going on with great vigor in Scotland, where the Protestants favored the alliance with England, while the Catholics allied themselves with France. By the treaty which had been negotiated during the lifetime of Henry VIII., Edward VI., the boy King of England, was betrothed to Mary, the girl Queen of Scotland, in order to carry out Henry's favorite idea of a union of the two British kingdoms.

English Invasion of Scotland.

In the very year of the accession of Edward VI. the Duke of Somerset, as Protector, urged upon the Scots the execution of the treaty; but the united French and Catholic influence in Scotland prevented it. The Protector thereupon led an English army into Scotland to compel the observance of the treaty; while an English fleet was sent into the Frith of Forth to assist the operations of the army.

Battle of Pinkie.

The regent of Scotland raised a large army to repel the English invasion; but the Scottish army, being placed between the English army and the sea, and thus exposed to the cannon of the English ships and placed between two fires, was defeated with the loss of ten thousand men in the battle of Pinkie, September 10, 1547—the last national conflict between the English and the Scots. Among the Scottish slain were many monks and Roman Catholic priests, whose hatred of the English heretics induced them to enter the camp.

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Among the many Scots who were taken prisoners was the Earl of Huntley, who expressed the prevailing sentiment among the Scots when, in answer to the question as to how he felt in regard to the marriage, he said he liked the match well enough, but disliked "the manner of wooing." The Scots were so irritated at the English that they sent young Queen Mary to France to be educated, and betrothed her to the Dauphin, afterward King Francis II. of France; thus rendering her marriage with Edward VI. impossible.

Mary's Betrothal to the Dauphin of France.

The Reformation in England now went on with renewed vigor. Parliament repealed the Six Articles, as well as the old and recent laws against heresy, and the tyrannical laws of Henry VIII. concerning treason. The Catholic clergy were removed from their livings, and Protestants were appointed in their places. In order to obtain the wealth of the Church, the Protestant leaders perpetrated many outrages on the Catholic clergy. The churches were despoiled of their plate; and their crucifixes and images, the paintings on their walls and the stained glass in their windows, were ruthlessly destroyed. The colleges connected with the religious houses, and the chantries, or places where mass was said for the dead, were broken up; and a part of their revenues was used for the endowment of grammar schools and hospitals.

Progress of the Reformation in England.

Archbishop Cranmer was intrusted with the direction of the doctrinal part of the Reformation, and was assisted in his work by Bishops Ridley and Latimer. The mild character of the Primate inclined him to moderation. A simple service in the English language was substituted for the celebration of the mass.

Archbishop Cranmer's Work.

But the most important step in promoting the English Reformation was the compilation of the *Book of Common Prayer*, by Archbishop Cranmer, who took the old Latin service as the basis of his work, and retained many of the prayers of the Roman Church, in order to conciliate those who were still inclined to the Pope. It was first published in 1549, but in 1552 some alterations were made in it to suit the more radical Reformers; and this Book of Common Prayer is very similar to the one now used in the Church of England. As this book was printed in the English language, the English people soon learned to love a form of worship which they were able to understand and in which they could participate so intelligently; and it was made obligatory in all the churches in England.

Book of Common Prayer.

About the same time Thomas Sternhold, an officer of the king's palace, displeased by the silly and profane songs which he was accustomed to hearing the courtiers sing, and thinking that he should do them a kindness by furnishing them with something better, translated David's Psalms into English verse, with the aid of a schoolmaster named Hopkins. These Psalms were at first sung to the tune of songs, but as

Translation of David's Psalms.

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they soon became popular they were adapted to church music, and were placed at the end of the Book of Common Prayer.

Thirty-nine Articles and the Church of England.

In order to secure a general conformity in religion in England, Archbishop Cranmer drew up forty-two articles, which have been slightly modified in the *Thirty-nine Articles*, which form a short summary of the doctrines of the Church of England. The English nation at large was in a great measure brought to a seeming conformity to the new state-religion, Protestant Episcopal in form, and known as the *Church of England*. Some adopted the Protestant religion from conviction of its truth; some because it was the state-religion; while those who had obtained grants of abbey lands warmly sustained the Protector, fearing that they should be obliged to refund their share of the plunder in case of a Catholic restoration.

Persecution of English Roman Catholics.

Only two persons perished at the stake during the reign of Edward VI., but many who refused to conform to the Protestant worship were punished with imprisonment. Bishop Gardiner was the most prominent of the Catholics who were thus incarcerated for refusing to conform to the new state-religion. The Princess Mary, the boy king's half-sister, was a rigid Catholic, and refused to conform to the religion of the government; whereupon her chaplains were imprisoned, and the princess herself was threatened with imprisonment; but when she appealed to her cousin, the Emperor Charles V., and attempted to escape from England, it was considered prudent to permit her to worship God according to the dictates of her conscience, on condition that she did so privately in her own house—a concession which caused the young king to shed many tears.

Plot against the Duke of Somerset.

The Duke of Somerset did not possess talents equal to his ambition; and as early as 1547, while he was conducting his campaign in Scotland, he received intelligence of some designs to remove him from the Protectorship. The malcontents were headed by his own brother, Lord Seymour, who aspired to supplant the Protector.

Lord Seymour's Marriage with Catharine Parr.

Seymour was a brilliant courtier, who possessed great powers of flattery, and had so won the good opinion of the widowed queen, Catharine Parr, that she married him very soon after the death of her second husband, King Henry VIII.; but she lived only one year after her third marriage. Seymour then had the presumption to pay his addresses to the Princess Elizabeth, and it is believed would have succeeded in his suit had not other officers of state opposed it.

Seymour and Dudley, Earl of Warwick.

Seymour openly opposed his brother's authority and induced a powerful party of noblemen to join him. He was encouraged in this course by Dudley, Earl of Warwick, son of that wicked Dudley who had served Henry VII. so dishonorably. Dudley, who hoped to raise himself by the ruin of both the brothers, induced Seymour to commit

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some violent actions, and then persuaded the Duke of Somerset to have him arrested for high treason. Seymour was tried and condemned without a hearing, and was executed on Tower Hill, March 20, 1549.

Seymour's Execution.

The destruction of the religious houses was a very severe measure to a great many people. Some of the abbots were allowed small pensions for their support, but the monks and nuns who were turned adrift were a helpless class who could do very little for their own maintenance. This measure was also a harsh proceeding toward those farmers who had occupied the Church lands at cheap rents. A larger class of sufferers were the idle poor, who had been fed daily at the convent gates and scarcely knew how to work. All these were now obliged to earn their daily bread by labor.

Distress Caused by the Destruction of the Religious Houses.

Besides the distresses of the classes already mentioned, the industrious poor suffered greatly from a change in the system of agriculture about this time. Many arable farms were converted into sheep pastures, on account of the high price of wool, thus producing a scarcity of corn and a lessened demand for labor. These causes produced insurrections and tumults in various parts of England during the year 1549.

Distress of the Poor.

Tumults and Insurrections.

The most important of the peasant revolts was that of Robert Ket, at the head of twenty thousand men in Norfolk. Ket established himself at Norwich, as judge and lawgiver for all the surrounding country, making his headquarters under an oak tree, which he called the "Tree of the Reformation." The revolts were suppressed with the usual barbarities, and the "Tree of the Reformation" served as a gallows.

Robert Ket's Revolt in Norfolk.

The Protector really felt a pity for the poor, and did all in his power to relieve their distresses; and the commotions were quelled. But the Protector offended the nobles by the great state and dignity which he assumed. He likewise displeased the people of London by demolishing a church to erect a magnificent palace upon its site. After being the residence of many royal personages, this palace was pulled down in 1775, and a grand edifice for the accommodation of public officers was erected on its site, but the name of *Somerset House* was still retained.

The Protector's Unpopular Acts.

Dudley, Early of Warwick, increased his fame and power by his stern suppression of the peasant revolts. He now headed a league of nobles against the Duke of Somerset, who was believed to sympathize with the rebel peasants. As the Duke of Somerset was now deserted by all except Archbishop Cranmer and his secretary, Paget, he resigned his office of Protector. The fallen Protector was also deprived of all his other offices, heavily fined and imprisoned. The government was then intrusted to a Council of Regency under the presidency of the Earl of Warwick.

Dudley, Earl of Warwick, Causes the Fall of the Duke of Somerset.

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Arrest, Trial and Execution of the Duke of Somerset.

Not satisfied with the overthrow of the Duke of Somerset, the Earl of Warwick accused the fallen Protector of a design to excite a rebellion, in 1551, and caused him to be again arrested, tried and condemned for high treason, and beheaded on Tower Hill. His cruel fate produced grief and sorrow among the common people, to whom his goodness of heart had much endeared him. When his head fell by the blow of the headsman's ax many rushed to the scaffold to dip their handkerchiefs in his blood, and these handkerchiefs were preserved as memorials of the unfortunate statesman.

Progress of the Reformation in England.

Under Dudley, Earl of Warwick, the Reformation in England was carried on with more intemperate zeal than it had been under the Duke of Somerset. The good Archbishop Cranmer sought to preserve to the Catholic clergy the scanty provision that still remained to them; but his integrity was no match for the avarice of the despoilers, whose rapacity spared no one. Under pretense of searching for forbidden books, the libraries of the Universities of Oxford and Westminster were rummaged, and all the books with gold and silver ornaments were seized and destroyed as superstitious relics.

Dudley Created Duke of Northumberland.

Dudley, Earl of Warwick, was now the real ruler of England, and his ambition knew no bounds. The boy king was completely in his power, and conferred on him the vast earldom of Northumberland with the title of Duke, that earldom having been confiscated to the crown. But Dudley's ambition soared still higher, and he desired to raise his descendants to the throne of England.

Ill Health of Edward VI.

The delicate Edward VI., who was a youth of such remarkable promise and of such great sweetness of character, was in consumption; and, as his health was rapidly declining, it was known that he had not long to live. Dudley, Duke of Northumberland, who had gained the boy king's entire confidence, persuaded him to alter the succession by depriving his two half-sisters of the English crown, and to make a will bequeathing the crown to Lady Jane Grey, daughter of the Duke of Suffolk and granddaughter of Charles Francis Brandon, Duke of Suffolk, and his wife, Mary Tudor, the youngest sister of Henry VIII.

His Will in Favor of Lady Jane Grey.

Opposition Thereto.

This will was unlawful, as it was a violation of the will of Henry VIII., and as it had not received the sanction of Parliament; but it was signed by all the great officers of state. When some of them hesitated to do so, the Duke of Northumberland violently declared that he would fight anybody in his shirt in so just a cause as that of Lady Jane Grey's succession. Archbishop Cranmer yielded his consent only to the youthful king's pathetic entreaties; and Sir James Hales, one of the judges, positively refused.

In making Lady Jane Grey his heir, Edward VI. was concerned for the security of the Protestant religion in England; Lady Jane being

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a Protestant, while his sister Mary was so zealous a Catholic that she still continued to hold Catholic services at her own house in defiance of the authorities. But the motives of the ambitious Duke of Northumberland were more selfish than those of the youthful king. He had married his own son, Lord Guilford Dudley, to Lady Jane Grey, thus securing the succession to his own descendants.

Lady Jane Grey and Princess Mary.

The health of Edward VI. now declined more rapidly than ever; and the Duke of Northumberland, affecting an anxious concern for him and waiting on him with the most assiduous zeal, dismissed his physicians and placed him under the care of an ignorant old woman, who promised a wonderful and speedy cure. Under her treatment he died, July 6, 1553, in the sixteenth year of his age and the seventh of his reign. England sincerely mourned this amiable boy, as his childish virtues had given hopes of a happy reign. As his health began to decline rapidly after Robert Dudley, son of the Duke of Northumberland and afterward so famous as Earl of Leicester, was in close attendance upon him, the suspicions of the people attributed his death to slow poison administered by the Dudleys.

Illness and Death of Edward VI.

The Duke of Northumberland had intended to have the death of Edward VI. kept secret until he could secure the arrest of the Princesses Mary and Elizabeth. He at once sent a message to Mary, desiring her presence during her brother's last hours; but Mary was opportunely warned of her danger by faithful friends, and escaped into Suffolk, sending orders to the Council of Regency to proclaim her Queen of England, and preparing to assert her rights by force of arms.

Dudley's Designs.

Princess Mary's Action.

The Duke of Northumberland could no longer delay his desperate scheme. He proceeded in great state to the residence of Lady Jane Grey and saluted her as Queen of England, July 10, 1553. She received this announcement with grief and surprise, and remonstrated with her father-in-law, pleading the superior claims of her cousins Mary and Elizabeth, or even those of the little Mary, Queen of Scots; but, as she was of a timid and gentle disposition, her scruples were soon overcome by the entreaties of her father-in-law, her father and her husband, and she suffered herself to be proclaimed queen. She, however, endured the cares of royalty only during a brief, joyless reign of ten days, July 10–19, 1553.

Lady Jane Grey Proclaimed Queen.

Lady Jane Grey was recognized as queen by only a small circle of immediate attendants, as the English people dreaded the bold ambition of the Duke of Northumberland more than they did the stern bigotry of the Catholic Princess Mary. The usurpation of the Duke of Northumberland therefore did not meet the approval of the people, who quickly rallied to the support of Mary, who was universally considered the rightful heir to the English throne.

Her Lack of Popular Support.

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SECTION IX.—QUEEN MARY AND CATHOLIC REACTION IN ENGLAND (A. D. 1553–1558).

Mary A. D. 1553–1558.

MARY entered London amid the joyful acclamations of the populace, and was at once proclaimed Queen of England, Lady Jane Grey returning to the privacy of her own house, July 19, 1553. In the midst of these popular demonstrations of loyalty to the rightful queen, Mary's half-sister Elizabeth came to meet her with a thousand horsemen whom she had mustered in support of their common cause.

Her Accession.

Lady Jane Grey's Retirement.

Lady Jane Grey gladly resigned the crown which she had so reluctantly assumed, and disappeared wholly from the public view, passing her time in the delightful pursuits of learning. As she was of the same age as the late king she had received all her education with him, and even appeared to possess greater facility in acquiring knowledge. Though she was then only sixteen years of age, she could speak fluently Latin, Greek, French and Italian, and had some acquaintance with Hebrew, Chaldee and Arabic. She was a singularly excellent woman, beautiful in person, sweet and guileless in disposition, gifted in conversation, and was better fitted to adorn domestic and literary than courtly circles.

Her Education.

Her Remarks to Roger Ascham.

Roger Ascham, the tutor to the Princess Elizabeth, once paid Lady Jane Grey a visit, and found her engaged in reading Plato, while the rest of the family were with a hunting party in the park; and when he admired the singularity of her choice she told him that she derived more pleasure from that author than the others could reap from all their sport and gayety. It is also said that on this occasion she told Ascham that she applied to study as a refuge from the severity of her parents, who used to so sharply taunt her and give her "pinches, nips and bobs," if she displeased them in the slightest degree, that she was in constant misery in their presence.

Queen Mary's Character and Attainments.

Mary was in her thirty-seventh year when she became Queen of England. She possessed few estimable or amiable qualities, and her person was no more engaging than her conduct and address. She inherited her mother's gravity with her father's violence and obstinate temper, and the natural moroseness of her temper had been increased by the early mortifications to which she had been subjected. Her education had been almost entirely neglected. She had mainly lived in a sort of confinement during her father's life; and though she had been more at liberty during her half-brother's reign she had still led a life of seclusion and dullness, while constant intercourse and the greatest affection subsisted between Edward VI. and his other half-sister, Elizabeth.

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Release of the Duke of Norfolk.

The first act of Mary's reign was the release of the old Duke of Norfolk, who had languished in prison, with the unexecuted death-sentence hanging over his head, ever since the death of Henry VIII. The guilty Dudley, Duke of Northumberland, who had tried to deprive her of her royal inheritance, was at once arrested, tried, condemned and beheaded for high treason; and he died declaring himself a Roman Catholic. Two of his accomplices in the treason also died by the headsman's ax.

Execution of the Duke of Northumberland.

Imprisonment of Lady Jane Grey and Her Husband.

The innocent but unfortunate Lady Jane Grey and her youthful husband, Lord Guilford Dudley, were arrested and imprisoned in the Tower. Both were condemned to death, but on account of their youth and innocence their lives were spared for the time. Renard, the Spanish ambassador in England, whose evil counsels were largely the cause of the misery of Mary's reign, advised the queen to have them executed at once; but she declined to act on his advice at that time.

Queen Mary and the Catholic Restoration.

Although she was a bigoted Catholic, Mary began her reign with a solemn promise not to overturn the Protestant State Church of England; but she soon violated this pledge by reinstating Gardiner, Bonner and Tonstall in their respective bishoprics, of which they had been deprived during her half-brather's reign. With the assistance of these men, she proceeded to undo the work of the English Reformation and to restore the Catholic religion in England, thus replacing everything on its old footing. Her first Parliament was opened with a Latin mass, in utter violation of laws still in force; and the same Parliament repealed all the statutes of the reign of Edward VI. in favor of the Protestant religion.

Reason for Her Catholic Zeal.

As Queen Mary had associated all the wrongs and sorrows of her childhood with the Reformation in England, it is not strange that she derived from her unhappy mother a fervent zeal for the Roman Church and a fierce prejudice against the Protestants. She was supported by many of her subjects with whom the rapacity of the Dukes of Somerset and Northumberland had brought the Protestant movement into discredit.

Her Action toward the Clergy.

Gardiner was made Chancellor, and the Archbishop of York and five other prelates were imprisoned. All clergymen in England were ordered to abstain from preaching until each received a special license from the queen's government, and many of them were deprived of their livings. Mary sent ambassadors to Pope Julius III., assuring him of her desire to restore her kingdom to its old allegiance to the Head of Christendom.

Flight of Protestants from England.

Seeing the approaching storm, the foreign Protestants in England hastily fled from the kingdom, and the country was thus deprived of the services of some of the most skillful artisans and mechanics. Many English Reformers also fled to foreign lands, as did many Protestant English gentlemen. Archbishop Cranmer was advised to leave the king-

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dom, but he said that he had too deep a concern in every measure of the Reformation to desert its cause in such a crisis.

Queen Mary and Archbishop Cranmer.

Queen Mary had from the first marked the good Primate for destruction. She hated Cranmer for his share in her mother's divorce; and, as she was of a disposition never to forgive an injury, all the good offices which Cranmer had done to herself could never, in her estimation, atone for that one act of his. She very well knew that the good archbishop had saved her from her father's wrath on many an occasion. Henry VIII. had once resolved to put her to death, and her life was only spared by Cranmer's remonstrances, while the time-serving Gardiner stood by without uttering a word in her behalf; but all these things made no impression upon the bigoted queen, and Cranmer was imprisoned in the common jail at Oxford. Gardiner's intervention spared the Primate's life for the time, Gardiner knowing that the queen intended to appoint Cardinal Pole to the dignity of Archbishop of Canterbury upon Cranmer's death.

Imprisonment of Cranmer.

Imprisonment of Princess Elizabeth.

Mary's half-sister Elizabeth, who was a Protestant, was ordered to embrace the Catholic faith; and her life was in peril during the whole of Mary's reign. She was detained a prisoner, but escaped the queen's vengeance by dissembling her real sentiments.

Proposed Marriage of Mary with Philip of Spain.

As soon as the Emperor Charles V. heard that his cousin had become Queen of England he sent to propose to her a marriage with his only son Philip, a bigoted Catholic like herself. Although nearly all Mary's counselors opposed the match, the queen readily consented. The wisest statesmen in England dreaded the immense power of Spain, whose king was also sovereign of Italy, Germany and the Netherlands, and was believed to be aiming at universal dominion; and the English people were well aware of Philip's cruelty and misanthropy.

Insurrection in Consequence.

Although it was agreed that neither Philip nor any other foreigner should have any share in the government, the public alarm in England was so great that a formidable insurrection broke out in Kent, under the leadership of Sir Thomas Wyatt, who had traveled in Spain and brought home such an account of Philip as added to the horror already entertained of him. The avowed design of the rebels was to dethrone Mary and to place Lady Jane Grey upon the English throne, but the movement failed for want of an efficient leader. The rebels dispersed; and Sir Thomas Wyatt and the Duke of Suffolk, with about four hundred others, were seized and executed.

Its Suppression.

Lady Jane Grey and Her Husband Condemned.

This ill-advised rebellion sealed the fate of Lady Jane Grey, whose misfortune it was always to suffer for the faults of her partisans. She was warned to prepare for death. Her constancy to the Protestant religion remained unshaken, and she passed some of the little time left to her in writing a farewell letter in Greek to her sister, exhorting her

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to remain firm in the Protestant faith. Her youthful husband, Lord Guilford Dudley, was also condemned to death; and he entreated to have a parting interview with his wife; but Lady Jane refused, as she feared that the affliction of such a meeting would overcome their fortitude. She replied to her husband's entreaty by saying that their separation would only be for a moment, and that they would soon rejoin each other in a scene where their affections would be forever united, and where nothing whatever could have access to disturb their eternal happiness.

His Execution.

From her window in the Tower, Lady Jane saw her husband's headless body carried away, and she followed him to the scaffold a few hours later, February 12, 1554. She appeared on the scaffold with a serene countenance, and declared that she had committed a great error in not having more firmly refused the crown, but that the cause of her fault had been filial reverence, and not her own ambition. Such was the sad fate of Lady Jane Grey and her husband, both of whom were only seventeen years of age when brought to the block, and whose brief career furnishes one of the most pathetic stories in English history. Her father was beheaded soon afterward, and the suspicious queen filled the prisons with nobles and gentlemen.

Execution of Lady Jane Grey

Sadness of Her End.

The Princess Elizabeth and Courtenay, Earl of Devonshire, great-grandson of King Edward IV., were suspected of aspiring to the English throne, and were arrested and committed to the Town. Renard, the Spanish ambassador in England, earnestly endeavored to persuade Queen Mary to put her half-sister to death; but, as there was no evidence to convict Elizabeth of treason, Mary did not dare to venture on so extreme a proceeding, and merely imprisoned her for a time at Woodstock.

Princess Elizabeth's Imprisonment.

Having thus suppressed all opposition to her authority in her kingdom, Queen Mary sent a fleet to escort Philip of Spain to England; but the admiral informed her that he dare not receive the Spanish prince on board his fleet, lest the sailors should commit some violence against him; in such detestation was he held. Finally Philip arrived in England in a vessel of his own, and the marriage took place at Winchester in July, 1554. A long train of wagon-loads of Spanish gold and silver preceded Philip to London.

Mary's Marriage with Philip of Spain.

The English Parliament agreed that Philip should be called King of England during the life of Mary, but stoutly refused to permit him to be crowned or to succeed the queen in case of her death without heirs. The whole English nation distrusted Philip, whose cold and reserved demeanor increased his unpopularity; and the cruelty with which Mary had removed those whom she regarded as her enemies had made her universally hated by her subjects.

English Distrust of Philip.

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Mary's Affection for Her Husband.

Philip's ruling passion was ambition; and Mary, who was slavishly devoted to her husband, soon realized that the best way to retain his affection was to help him to become master of England. The evils of Mary's reign would have been increased by the sacrifice of her kingdom to her fondness for her husband, had not Parliament, which was so subservient to the queen in other respects, resolutely maintained the independence of England. During this entire reign Parliament was mainly engaged in guarding against Philip's encroachments, while Mary's only anxiety was to increase her husband's power and influence. Although she doted on him with a troublesome fondness, he found it difficult to conceal his own dislike for his unengaging companion.

Parliament's Firm Stand.

Catholic Restoration.

There was, however, one point upon which Queen Mary and her Spanish husband were agreed—the restoration of the Roman Catholic Church as the state religion of England, and the extirpation of Protestantism by the most violent and sanguinary means. Pope Julius III. at first hesitated about receiving such a kingdom of heretics as England within the pale of the Roman Church; but Queen Mary's marriage with so zealous a Catholic as Philip of Spain was followed by a reconciliation between England and the Vatican; and the queen's cousin, Cardinal Reginald Pole, who had so long lived in exile from his native land, was appointed the Pope's legate in England.

Mary and Pope Julius III.

The Pope's Legate and Parliament's Subserviency.

Upon his arrival in the kingdom the legate was welcomed with great pomp and solemnity by Parliament. To his invitation to reconcile themselves and the kingdom with the Pope, both Houses of Parliament replied with compliant addresses. Then Lords and Commons, all on their knees, in the palace of Whitehall, November 30, 1554, received from the legate, in the Pope's name, absolution and forgiveness for the sin of the English nation in asserting its independence of the Pope, and they and the kingdom were tenderly received back into the bosom of the Roman Catholic Church.

Its Refusal to Restore the Religious Houses.

Although the subservient Parliament passed statute after statute repealing all the legislation of the reigns of Henry VIII. and Edward VI. in favor of the Protestant religion, it refused to reëstablish the religious houses and to restore their lands to them; but Mary, more zealous than her subjects, conscientiously restored to the Roman Church such of the confiscated ecclesiastical property as remained in the possession of the crown. Parliament also reënacted the old laws of the reigns of Henry IV. and Henry V. against heretics.

Queen Mary's Persecutions.

Cardinal Pole, the papal legate, was a man of gentle and Christian disposition, who, although zealously assisting to restore the Catholic faith and worship, constantly besought mercy toward the unreconciled. But Queen Mary and her husband were determined that the English people should be forced to conform to the Roman doctrine and worship;

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Bishops Gardiner and Bonner.

and, under the counsels of the cruel Bishop Gardiner, her Chancellor, the queen inaugurated a system of the most terrible and unrelenting persecution, consigning England's most holy and venerable men to the flames. Gardiner soon became so disgusted with the horrid task that he resigned it to the brutal Bonner, Bishop of London, a man of such inhumanity that he himself frequently acted as executioner because he delighted to see the dying agonies of the victims.

Cruel Martyrdoms at the Stake.

The persecution lasted three years, beginning in 1555 and ending with the close of Mary's reign in 1558. During these three terrible years for England multitudes of Protestants perished by the ax and by fire, martyrs to their religion; while thousands suffered fines, imprisonment and lesser penalties. Great numbers fled to foreign lands. No regular form of trial was observed. Victims were arrested on suspicion, and if they refused to sign certain articles they were immediately condemned to death by fire.

The Martyrs.

In all, two hundred and seventy-seven Protestants sealed their faith in their religion by martyrdom at the stake. This dismal list of martyrs embraced one archbishop, four bishops, twenty-one clergymen, eight lay gentlemen, eighty-four tradesmen, one hundred farmers, servants and laborers, fifty-five women and four children. "Bloody Queen Mary"—as she was called on account of these persecutions—justified her cruel policy in these words: "If heretics are burned in the next world, why have I not the right to burn them in this world?" Many of the worst practices of the Spanish Inquisition were introduced into England, to the indignation and disgust of the nation.

Mary's Self Justification.

Martyrdom of Rogers, Taylor, Ferrars and Hooper.

The first of these Protestant martyrs was John Rogers, one of the foremost preachers of the English Reformation, who was burned at Smithfield in 1555 for denying the doctrine of transubstantiation. Another was Dr. Rowland Taylor, the Vicar of Hadleigh, who perished at the stake with the most heroic fortitude at Oldham Common, amid the tears and lamentations of the spectators. John Hooper, Bishop of Gloucester, was burned in his own cathedral city; and Ferrars, Bishop of St. David's, perished at the stake at Caermarthen, in Wales. When Hooper was tied to the stake the queen's pardon was placed on the stool before him; and if he would have recanted, all that was necessary for him to do was to stretch forth his hand to save his life; but he refused to purchase it at such a sacrifice of honest principle.

Martyrdom of Latimer and Ridley.

Among the most illustrious of these martyrs were Bishop Latimer of Worcester and Bishop Ridley of London, who suffered together at Oxford. As side by side they were chained to the iron stake and surrounded by blazing fagots, they exhibited a fortitude and constancy unsurpassed in the world's annals. As the flames shot up around them the venerable Latimer thus addressed his friend: "Be of good cheer,

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Brother Ridley, and play the man; we shall this day light such a candle, by God's grace, in England, as I trust shall never be put out."

Gardiner's Rancor and Death.

So implacable was Gardiner's hatred of Latimer and Ridley that on the day of their martyrdom he had made a vow that he would not dine until he received information that fire was set to the fagots with which they were to be burned. The messenger did not arrive as soon as he expected, but Gardiner would not break his vow. So he kept the old Duke of Norfolk, who was his guest that day, waiting from eleven—then the usual dinner hour—until three o'clock. When, however, the desired intelligence arrived and the dinner was served, Gardiner did not partake of it; as he was attacked with a sudden illness and carried to his bed, which he never left alive.

Archbishop Cranmer's Doom.

Gardiner had all along stood between the queen and Cranmer's death, as he did not want Cardinal Pole advanced to the dignity of Archbishop of Canterbury, because the cardinal's mild and benignant disposition always led him to oppose Gardiner's violent and sanguinary counsels. Now, as Gardiner was no more, there was no opposition to the queen's desire that Archbishop Cranmer should also suffer death as a heretic, and the good Primate was accordingly condemned to be burned at Oxford.

Queen Mary's Resentment.

But Queen Mary's resentment went so far that she wished to degrade the honored Primate in the estimation of the whole world, and she accordingly employed people to persuade Cranmer that his life was so valuable to his country that he ought to save it by any means. These individuals were likewise authorized to promise the good archbishop a pardon if he would recant—a promise which Mary never intended to keep.

Cranmer's Firm Stand.

In a moment of weakness Cranmer signed a paper expressing his belief in the Catholic doctrines; but the queen informed him that this was not sufficient, and that he must acknowledge his errors publicly in the church. Cranmer's strength of mind now returned; and when he was brought forth to make his public recantation he declined to do so, but bewailed his weakness and asserted his firm belief in the Protestant faith. Thereupon he was instantly led to the stake.

Cranmer's Martyrdom.

When the fagots were in a blaze he stretched out his right hand, with which he had signed the paper of recantation, and held it in the flames until it was burned off, saying frequently: "This is the hand that has offended." Then his countenance became peacefully serene, as if his mind were more at ease for having made such atonement, and he seemed insensible to all worldly suffering, thoroughly resigned to his fate. The next day Cardinal Pole was made Archbishop of Canterbury, and he displayed so much lenity toward the Protestants that he excited the displeasure of Pope Paul IV.

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CRANMER AT THE TRAITORS' GATE

From the Painting by F. Goodall

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Popular Sympathy for the Martyrs.

Cranmer's martyrdom had a most injurious effect upon the Catholic cause in England. Thousands had witnessed the heroic fortitude with which he had suffered at the stake, and all England mourned the good archbishop. So much popular sympathy was shown to the martyrs that the bigoted queen issued a proclamation forbidding her subjects to approach, speak to or comfort heretics who were on their way to execution. But this command was totally disregarded, as the English people deeply resented Mary's cruelties, which were utterly repugnant to their feelings. The title of "Bloody Mary" expressed the English people's detestation of their cruel Catholic queen, and her Spanish husband was hated to a still greater degree.

Martyrdoms Make Protestants.

Latimer's prophetic words at the stake were speedily fulfilled. The fires of persecution kindled anew the zeal and devotion of the English Reformers, and for every life that perished in martyrdom there were a hundred converts to Protestantism. Says Hume: "Each martyrdom was equivalent to a hundred sermons against popery; and men either avoided such horrid spectacles or returned from them full of a violent though secret indignation against the persecutors."

Queen Mary and Her Husband.

Queen Mary's marriage was an unhappy one. She was a small, haggard, sickly woman, eleven years older than her husband. The marriage had been one of policy on his part. His wife was passionately fond and very jealous of him, but he did not reciprocate her affection. Becoming weary of her jealous fondness, and disgusted with the enmity and suspicion which he had excited in England, he departed to Flanders in 1555; and, upon the abdication of his father, the Emperor Charles V., in the fall of that year, he became King of Spain, Naples and Sicily, and lord of the Netherlands and Spanish America, with the title of Philip II., as noticed in a preceding section.

He Becomes Philip II. of Spain.

His Neglect of His Wife.

Seeing herself treated with neglect and indifference by her husband, Queen Mary passed her time in lamentations and in writing long letters to him, which he never condescended to answer. The more he slighted her the more she doted on him; and she burdened her subjects with oppressive taxes to obtain money, in the hope of winning him back.

Mary Joins Her Husband in War against France.

Philip II., who had his father's ambition without his talents, sought to secure the alliance of England in his war with France. Queen Mary could not obtain her Council's consent to join her husband in the war. But when Philip came to London in 1556, and told his wife that he would never set foot in England again unless she declared war against France, Mary, almost frantic with the fear of losing her husband, pressed the matter so urgently as to overcome the strenuous opposition of her Council and Parliament, and war was declared against France.

As Mary's resources were already exhausted in furnishing Philip with money, she was obliged to resort to the most unjust and arbitrary

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Mary's Expedient to Raise Money.

expedients to wring money from her subjects, and an English force of ten thousand men was sent into Flanders to aid Philip. To prevent a rebellion of her subjects, Mary caused many of the leading gentry to be imprisoned, and adopted the Spanish custom of having them seized in the night and carried away hoodwinked, so that they might not be known nor see to what place they were conducted.

Battle of St. Quentin.

The English troops assisted the Spaniards in gaining their victory over the French in the battle of St. Quentin in 1557; but Calais—which had belonged to England for two centuries, and was "the brightest jewel in her crown"—was surprised and captured by the French under Francis, Duke of Guise, after a siege of only eight days, January 8, 1558. The news of the loss of this last remaining stronghold of England on the Continent of Europe—the last remaining trophy of the conquests of Edward III.—spread dismay throughout England; and poor Queen Mary, pining away with illness and her husband's neglect, declared that at her death the word "Calais" would be found engraved on her heart.

English Loss of Calais.

Mary's Pitiable Condition.

It is impossible not to pity this unhappy Queen of England, notwithstanding her atrocious cruelties. She was hated and cursed by her subjects with a bitterness which words fail to express. Her knowledge of this fact caused her an untold amount of suffering. Her husband, utterly tired of her, remained on the Continent of Europe, and paid no attention to the piteous letters which she constantly addressed him. Her subjects manifested their hatred of her by means of libels, lampoons and ribald ballads, which were dropped by unknown persons where she would be sure to find them. While reading them she would give way to outbursts of despairing fury, and then retire to her chamber to weep away her sorrow. She would sit on the floor there for hours, with her knees drawn up to her face. Then she would rouse herself and wander restlessly about the corridors of the palace, or write those sorrowful, tear-blotted letters to her husband by which she vainly sought to move his hardened heart.

Her Sad Death and Popular Rejoicings.

Vexation of mind and feebleness of body threw the unhappy queen into a fever, which ended her miserable life and her wretched reign, November 17, 1558, in the forty-third year of her age and the sixth of her reign. Her death—which was followed on the same day by that of Cardinal Pole, who left an unsullied name behind him—was hailed throughout the kingdom with popular demonstrations of joy, as it ended the Pope's power in England forever.

Mary's Reasons for Her Cruel Persecutions.

Mary was a kind mistress to her immediate household, and her cruel persecutions were the result of her mistaken sense of duty. She conscientiously believed it her duty to extirpate what she considered heresy and to reëstablish what she regarded as truth, by forcible means, if

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necessary. It must also be remembered that she associated all the wrongs and sorrows of her childhood with the English Reformation. Besides, she had been brought up in her father's court, which was as absolute as the court of an Oriental despot, and in which the king's whims disposed of the lives of his subjects. What makes her brief and unhappy reign appear so dark is the contrast of the bigotry and cruelty of her time with the religious freedom of our own day.

SECTION X.—QUEEN ELIZABETH OF ENGLAND AND PROTESTANT TRIUMPH (A. D. 1558–1603).

Elizabeth, A. D. 1558–1603.

Her Accession.

WHEN Queen Mary's death was announced to Parliament, which was in session at the time, Lords and Commons sprang from their seats; and shouts of "God save Queen Elizabeth" resounded through the halls. When the news spread among the people of London their joy was so great that they hurried in crowds to Hatfield, where ELIZABETH was then residing, and escorted her in triumph to London; and her accession to the throne of England was greeted throughout the kingdom by pealing bells and blazing bonfires, this outburst of popular delight being undisguised even by decent respect for her predecessor's unhappy memory.

Her Character and Accomplishments.

Elizabeth was twenty-five years of age when she became Queen of England. The daughter of Henry VIII. and Anne Boleyn had her mother's beauty and gayety of disposition, as well as her father's frank and hearty address, along with his energetic intellect, dauntless courage and imperious will. She was tall and commanding in person, had a high and open forehead, an aquiline nose, a pale complexion and rather yellowish hair. She was an accomplished scholar and a fine musician, and loved the healthful sports of archery and horsemanship.

Her Forgiving Disposition.

The new queen appeared desirous of forgetting her past sufferings, and never manifested any resentment toward those who had been instrumental in inflicting them. Even her severe and churlish jailor, Sir Richard Banefield, experienced no other punishment or rebuke than that of her telling him that she would give him the custody of any state prisoner whom she desired to have treated with more than ordinary severity.

Her Aversion to Bonner.

The brutal Bishop Bonner was the only one of her sister's counselors to whom she manifested any marked aversion. When he came to make his obeisance to her she turned from him with horror, refusing either to speak to him or to look at him.

Protestant Restoration in England.

Elizabeth's accession to the English throne was the crisis of the Reformation in England and Scotland; and, as she was a Protestant, the first act of her reign was to restore the Protestant Church of Eng-

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Elizabeth's Vigor.

land, which had been so cruelly overthrown by her Catholic predecessor. At the time of her accession England had been reduced to the deepest humiliation through defeat abroad and misgovernment at home; but Europe soon found that a strong and vigorous hand wielded the destinies of that kingdom.

Elizabeth as the Protestant Champion of Europe.

As Philip II. of Spain was the great champion of Roman Catholicism in Europe, so Queen Elizabeth, as the greatest Protestant sovereign, was looked upon by the Protestants in all lands as their protectress and leader. She was not always able to aid them to the full extent of her power, as she was menaced with perils and difficulties which obliged her to act with discretion and caution. Nevertheless, the assistance which she furnished to the Protestants of Scotland, France and the Netherlands during the wars of religion was of great service to the cause of the Reformation; and the moral influence of the alliance of the "Virgin Queen" of England was of inestimable importance to the struggling Protestants of those countries. Thus England under Queen Elizabeth was the counterpoise to the vast power of Spain during the last half of the sixteenth century, as France under King Francis I. had been during the first half.

Her Great Reign.

England was very prosperous during Elizabeth's reign of forty-five years (1558–1603), making great advances in agriculture, manufactures, commerce, navigation and literature; and never had that kingdom a sovereign who swayed the scepter with more ability than did this mighty queen. Indeed Elizabeth is often ranked as the greatest of English sovereigns.

Peaceful Protestant Triumph.

Elizabeth called the wisest men in England to her councils, and of these statesmen Walsingham and Burleigh enjoyed the greatest degree of her confidence. In restoring the Protestant religion Elizabeth proceeded with great prudence and caution, and effected her object without the shedding of a drop of blood or the confiscation of a single estate. On the very day that she entered London as queen the prison doors were opened wide to all who were confined for their religion, thus still further heightening the universal joy which hailed her accession.

State Church of England.

The first Parliament of Elizabeth's reign reënacted all the laws of Edward VI. in favor of the Protestant religion, and made the Church of England, Protestant Episcopal in form, almost what it is at the present time. The *Act of Supremacy* required all bishops, clergy and officers of the crown to take an oath acknowledging the queen as the Supreme Head of the Church of England and denying allegiance to all foreign authority. By foreign authority was meant the Pope.

Act of Supremacy.

Oath of Supremacy.

All the bishops of Mary's reign but one refused to take this *Oath of Supremacy*, and were removed from their sees, their places being filled with the Protestant bishops who had fled to foreign lands to escape

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Mary's wrath and who were now recalled. Dr. Matthew Parker, a man eminent for his learning and piety, was made Archbishop of Canterbury. The parish priests, with few exceptions, took the required oath, and were not disturbed. As fast as their places became vacant they were filled with Protestant clergymen, so that all the pulpits in England came to be in sympathy with the state-religion in the course of time.

Protestant Clergy.

Parliament also passed the *Act of Uniformity*, requiring all the English people to attend the services of the Protestant State Church and to conform to its usages, and punishing with fine and imprisonment all who absented themselves from the services of that Church. Unable to submit to this law, many English Roman Catholics fled to foreign lands, where they menaced Elizabeth's throne and life by their constant plots during the whole period of her reign.

Act of Uniformity.

Catholic Exodus.

The *Thirty-nine Articles of Faith*, which were adopted as the creed of the Church of England, became the standard of religious belief. The Book of Common Prayer, somewhat improved, was restored to its former place in the religious service. The Scriptures were ordered to be read and prayers offered in the English language. Six great Bibles were placed in different parts of St. Paul's Cathedral, and whenever a reader could be found these were always surrounded by an eager crowd.

Thirty-nine Articles.

Church Services.

As the Anglican Church retained many of the practices and usages of the Roman Church, many English Protestants—adherents of the Calvinistic faith—held aloof from the Established Church and organized under their presbyters and synods. They were called *Dissenters* and *Nonconformists*, because they dissented from, and refused to conform to, the doctrines and practices of the Established Church; and because they expressed their desire for a purer form of worship, and condemned all frivolous amusements as sinful, they were called, in derision, *Puritans*. For refusing to comply with the Acts of Supremacy and Uniformity, many were fined and imprisoned during Elizabeth's reign.

Dissenters, Nonconformists, or Puritans.

For the causes of the rise of the Puritans we must look to Mary's reign. The cruel persecutions of that bigoted Catholic queen had driven thousands of English Protestants into exile. Many of them took refuge at Geneva, where, under Calvin and the disciples of Zwingli, the Reformation had taken a more radical type than it had under Luther and Melanchthon in Germany, or under Cranmer and Sir Thomas Cromwell in England.

Their Origin.

The Calvinists utterly discarded the surplice, the liturgy, the bishops of Episcopacy and every form of ceremony peculiar to the Church of Rome. The Calvinists even banished that beautiful symbol, the Cross, from religious worship and from the churches themselves, as that emblem

Their Austerity.

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was an abomination in their eyes. They also turned "Merry Christmas," the joyful anniversary of the Saviour's birth, into a solemn fast, because both Cross and Christmas were so intimately associated with the Papacy.

Puritan Simplicity and Purity.

Upon Elizabeth's accession these English exiles returned to their native land, bringing with them the plainer worship and the stricter mode of life which they had learned to love abroad. The severe simplicity and purity of their religious faith became the rule and practice of their daily life, and produced a character of the type of ancient Sparta, of the mould of early republican Rome. Puritanism was a reform of Episcopacy, as Episcopacy had been a reform of Catholicism; Episcopacy thus being the mean between the two extremes—retaining many of the forms and ceremonies of Romanism, while its system of faith was identical with that of the Puritans.

Puritan Bigotry.

Puritanism partook of the narrowness and bigotry of the age in which it flourished; but, notwithstanding this fact, there is a grandeur in the development of Puritanism in England during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, as there also is in the growth of Calvinism in the neighboring countries. The painful but inspiring story of the Puritans of England, the Covenanters of Scotland and the Huguenots of France—the story of their sublime fortitude, patience and suffering, as they obeyed the simple dictates of conscience with unquestioning faith—this story stirs the soul, ennobles our conceptions of humanity, deepens our faith in virtue and our trust in truth.

Puritan Devotion.

Religion was to these Puritans an intensely personal matter. Though they shrank from no sacrifice, their devotion to their religion was the devotion of rational beings, not that of blind devotees. The one great fact of Puritan life was the consciousness of the Divine Presence, as nothing stood between their souls and their God. Their thoughts were occupied with questions of individual responsibility and individual duty. Life became an incessant and endless struggle to them. They displayed unconscious heroism with the deepest humility, and achieved the grandest results without thinking of worldly fame, as they were inspired by constant meditation on the sublime realities with which they came in contact, but were sobered in spirit by a sense of personal unworthiness.

Puritans as Independents.

At first the Puritans had no desire to separate themselves from the English State Church, but strove to ingraft their ideas in the doctrines and ritual of that Church. Some of the more radical Puritans objected to the government of the Church by bishops. When they became conscious of their inability to carry out their desires they commenced withdrawing from the Established Church and holding meetings of their own. Near the end of Elizabeth's reign they openly seceded from the

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Anglican Church, as a distinct sect, under the name of *Independents*. Queen Elizabeth appointed a *Court of High Commission* to enforce the Act of Uniformity; and the Puritans, or Independents, as Dissenters and Nonconformists, were punished by fine and imprisonment, but they held on to their doctrines with a constancy and a devotion inspired by a conviction of their truth.

Court of High Commission.

Persecution of Puritans.

Notwithstanding the Puritan defection from the State Church of England, the English Protestants presented an unbroken front to the Pope and to their Catholic enemies both in and out of England. The Puritans never wavered in their loyalty to Queen Elizabeth, but gave their unflinching support to her in the great trials to which England was subjected by the religious and political animosity of the Pope and of Philip II. of Spain.

Puritan Loyalty to Elizabeth.

As soon as Philip II. of Spain heard of his wife's death he proposed to marry her sister. But Elizabeth was too well aware of the aversion of her subjects to the Spanish match; and, besides, she was now in the same relation to Philip II. that her father had been to Catharine of Aragon upon the death of his brother Arthur. The very ground of her mother's claim as wife, and her own as queen, was the decision that such a marriage is unlawful. But as she did not wish to offend the most powerful monarch in Christendom, she returned a polite but evasive answer; and soon afterward she announced to Parliament her determination never to marry. She never wavered long from this decision, though many royal and princely suitors sought her hand at various times. This was perhaps a wise resolve on her part, as it enabled her to be more independent and freer to carry out her vigorous policy.

Elizabeth's Decision Never to Marry.

The war which England, in alliance with Spain, had waged against France during Mary's reign was closed by the Peace of Cateau-Cambresis in 1559, by which France retained Calais; but there was no return of good feeling, and it was thenceforth that Europe was divided between two great religious parties, Queen Elizabeth being the recognized head of the Protestant interests, while Philip II. of Spain was the acknowledged champion of Roman Catholicism. Offended at Elizabeth's refusal to marry him, Philip II. became her implacable enemy.

Peace of Cateau-Cambresis.

Elizabeth and Philip II.

Mary Stuart, the young Queen of Scotland, who had spent most of her girlhood at the French court, where she was educated, became the wife of the Dauphin in 1558; and, upon the death of his father, King Henry II. of France, July 10, 1559, her young husband became King of France with the title of Francis II. Mary Stuart, Queen of Scotland by inheritance, Queen of France by marriage, now adopted the title and arms of Queen of England, with the approval of the Pope, who publicly denied Elizabeth's claim as queen and her mother's as wife.

Mary Stuart, Queen of Scots, as Elizabeth's Rival.

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Mary was the next heir to the English throne after Elizabeth; and she was regarded by the Catholics both in and out of England as the rightful sovereign of that kingdom, because Elizabeth's mother had never been recognized by the Roman Church as a lawful wife of Henry VIII., and Elizabeth was therefore regarded by them as an illegitimate child and therefore as incapable of inheriting the English crown.

Mary Stuart and Francis II. of France.

When Francis II. and Mary Stuart, upon their accession in 1559, had by the Pope's command assumed upon their arms and equipage the title of "King and Queen of France, Scotland and England," Elizabeth remonstrated through her ambassador at Paris, but received no satisfaction. It was evident that the royal couple who wore the crowns of France and Scotland would seize the first opportunity to enforce their claim to the English crown.

Reformation in Scotland.

In the meantime the Reformation had advanced with rapid strides in Scotland under the preaching of that great Apostle of Calvinism, the celebrated John Knox, who had returned from Geneva full of zeal for the Calvinistic doctrines. In 1557 the Scottish Reformers leagued themselves under the title of the *Lords of the Congregation*, and the agreement which they thus signed is known as the *First Covenant*.

First Covenant.

French Influence in Scotland.

The Scottish queen's mother, Mary of Guise, was regent of Scotland; and the Guises, whose influence ruled both France and Scotland, sought to crush the Reformation in both kingdoms. French troops were accordingly sent to Scotland to sustain the regent in extirpating heresy and strengthening the French interests in that kingdom. In 1559 the Lords of the Congregation appealed to Queen Elizabeth, ordered all French troops to retire from Scotland and required Mary of Guise to resign the regency.

Elizabeth's Aid to the Scottish Reformers.

In 1560 Elizabeth, conscious that her own throne, as well as the Protestant religion, were menaced by the action of France, sent an English army into Scotland to aid the Reformers. The English fleet and army besieged the French army in Leith and took the city; and by the Treaty of Edinburgh, which followed, the King and Queen of France and Scotland were obliged to renounce all claims to the crown of England during the lifetime of Elizabeth, the French troops were withdrawn from Scotland and foreigners were excluded from office in that kingdom.

Treaty of Edinburgh.

Protestant Triumph in Scotland.

Elizabeth's vigorous action against French influence and in support of the Reformation in Scotland raised the prestige of England's queen to a high degree throughout Europe. The Reformation now achieved its triumph in Scotland by the action of the Lords of the Congregation, who assembled the Scottish Parliament, which at once abolished the mass, cast off Scotland's allegiance to the Pope and renewed the alliance with the Queen of England.

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Mary Stuart's Claims to the Crown of England.

The premature death of Francis II. of France, in 1560, ended all danger of a war between England and France on account of his widowed queen's claims to the English crown; but Mary, in accordance with the advice of her uncle, Francis, Duke of Guise, refused to surrender formally those claims; and she had not yet, as Queen of Scotland, ratified the Treaty of Edinburgh, and persisted in her refusal until near the close of her life.

Her Love for France.

On the death of her husband, in 1560, Mary, although harshly treated by her mother-in-law, the wicked Catharine de Medici, still for a time remained in France, a land which she loved most dearly. Finally the clamors of her Scottish subjects induced Mary to leave her delightful France, and to return with great reluctance to the wild country of the Scots, which she was then to govern.

Elizabeth's Precautions.

When Mary was ready to sail for Scotland she asked permission of Queen Elizabeth to pass through England on her way to her native and hereditary kingdom, but Elizabeth consented only on condition that the Queen of Scots ratified the Treaty of Edinburgh, thus renouncing all claim to the English crown. Appreciating the danger with which her crown was menaced by Mary's presence in Scotland, because the Catholics considered Mary's claim to the English crown superior to her own, Elizabeth stationed a fleet in the English Channel to intercept the Queen of Scots on her voyage to her own hereditary kingdom.

Mary Stuart's Reluctant Departure from France.

After embarking on her voyage to Scotland, Mary fixed her eyes on the coast of her beloved France until the darkness of night prevented her from seeing it any longer. Then she lay down to sleep on her couch on the deck of the vessel, giving orders that if the French coast was still visible on the return of daylight she should be awakened. The vessel made little progress during the night, thus enabling the Queen of Scots to have another parting view of the delightful land which she loved so well. Her regret at leaving that beautiful country was expressed in some pathetic French verses which she wrote at the time. The contrast between the country which she left and the one which she now came to govern increased her melancholy, and the rude and savage manners of the Scots filled her with disgust.

Her Return to Scotland.

Eluding the English fleet in the Channel in a dense fog, Mary reached her native Scotland in safety, August, 1561; but she came home as a French woman—gay, brilliant, accomplished, and delighting in the elegant dissipations of Paris—not at all inclined to favor the severe manners which triumphant Calvinism had made prevalent in Scotland.

Calvinism in Scotland.

John Knox and the Lords of the Congregation, absorbed in their stern conflict with Roman Catholicism, had no tolerance for even the most innocent practices associated with the Catholic doctrines,

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Mary Stuart and the Scottish Reformers.

Queen Mary earnestly wished to unite all parties in Scotland against both French and English influence. She gave her confidence to the Scottish Reformers and commanded her subjects to attend Protestant worship; but, as she loved the rites in which she had been educated, she insisted upon having mass said in her private chapel. The Reformers regarded this as an abomination; and John Knox, in his zeal for Calvinism, denounced his queen as Jezebel and her priests as Satan's ministers.

Mary Stuart's Unpleasant Situation.

The Queen of Scots being a Catholic and her kingdom Protestant, her position was a most uncomfortable one, as she found herself without the power to enforce her will in the midst of subjects bitterly hostile to her; and John Knox and the other Scottish Reformers treated her with a brutality from which her sex should have shielded her. Her unenviable situation was made worse by her utter lack of prudence.

Her Relations with Queen Elizabeth.

Perceiving that she could not maintain her position without the friendship of the Queen of England, Mary opened a friendly correspondence with Elizabeth, but her course was so impolitic as to convince Elizabeth that the Queen of Scots still entertained designs upon the crown of England. Nevertheless, a nominal reconciliation was effected between the two queens, and they appeared to be the best of friends, calling themselves "loving sister" in their letters to each other, but all the while distrusting and disliking each other in the most womanly style.

Mary Stuart's Marriage with Lord Darnley.

Mary, having been urged by her council to a second marriage, paid Elizabeth the compliment of asking her to select a suitable companion for her. The Queen of England desired that her "loving sister" should remain a widow; and, after proposing several matches which she knew the Queen of Scots would not accept, Elizabeth was very much displeased and alarmed when Mary finally chose for herself in 1565, by marrying her cousin, Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley, son of the Earl of Lennox. Darnley was a rigid Catholic, like Mary herself, and was after her the next heir to the crowns of both Scotland and England; and Mary had married him to unite all the Catholic forces in the two British kingdoms.

Murder of David Rizzio.

Mary's new husband was a weak-minded and dissolute youth, and soon disgusted his wife by his neglect, fickleness and jealousy. He conceived a violent hatred, inspired by jealousy, for Mary's private secretary, David Rizzio, an Italian singer, whom he accused of being the queen's lover. Darnley's jealous fury sought revenge, and at the head of a body of young nobles he forced his way into Holyrood Palace, at Edinburgh, and stabbed Rizzio to death as he sat at supper with the queen, A. D. 1566.

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Murder of Lord Darnley.

The Queen of Scots now burned with hatred against her husband and vowed vengeance against the murderers of her Italian secretary. Though she was apparently reconciled to her husband, she made James Hepburn, Earl of Bothwell, a bold, bad man, her confidential adviser, but paid her husband a visit when he was taken sick. One night after this visit—February 10, 1567—the people of Edinburgh were awakened by a terrible explosion. Darnley's house—known as the Kirk of Field—had been blown up by gunpowder, and his lifeless body was found at a distance. The Scottish people accused the Earl of Bothwell as the perpetrator of the horrible murder, and as Queen Mary married him three months later she was suspected of complicity in the crime.

Mary's Marriage with the Earl of Bothwell.

The Earl of Bothwell's Flight.

Queen Mary's marriage with the Earl of Bothwell produced a rebellion of the Scotch people against her. The Earl of Bothwell fled from Scotland, and lived by piracy until he was thrown into prison in Denmark, where he became insane, and so remained the last ten years of his life. Queen Mary was now seized and imprisoned in a lonely castle in the island of Lochlevin, by her rebellious subjects, who compelled her to abdicate her crown in favor of her infant son, James VI.; while her half-brother, the Earl of Murray, was appointed regent of the Scotch kingdom during the minority of her son. In 1568 Mary escaped from prison and raised an army to recover her lost authority, but was defeated by the Earl of Murray in a battle at Langside, whereupon she fled into England, to seek the protection of Queen Elizabeth, May 16, 1568.

Mary's Overthrow and Flight to England.

Elizabeth's Refusal to Receive Mary.

The Queen of Scots demanded of Elizabeth either a passage to France or an army to recover the Scottish throne. The English queen declined to receive Mary until she had cleared herself of the accusation of having been an accomplice in the murder of her second husband. Mary replied that she would gladly submit her cause to the arbitration of so good a friend; but when her half-brother, the Earl of Murray, the regent of Scotland, laid before the English commissioners Mary's own letters to the Earl of Bothwell, containing her consent to Lord Darnley's death and the earl's seizure of herself, Mary, as an independent sovereign, refused to submit to a trial by an English tribunal, and was therefore detained as a state prisoner in England by order of Queen Elizabeth, greatly to the English queen's discomfort and disquietude.

Mary's Detention in England.

Her Long Captivity in England.

The English queen was induced to take this step by the advice of her Prime Minister, Cecil, Lord Burleigh, who pointed out the danger of permitting the Queen of Scots to pass over to France, where she would be the center of every Catholic plot against England's Protestant queen. Mary's captivity in England, which lasted nineteen years,

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aggravated the very danger which Elizabeth's Prime Minister sought to avoid.

Catholic Plots in Favor of Mary.

The Queen of Scots soon made good her word that her captors should have enough to do with her, as she became the center of innumerable Catholic plots against Elizabeth's throne and life. The Duke of Norfolk, the leader of the Catholic party in England, who hoped to marry the Queen of Scots, was detected in a conspiracy to place Mary on the English throne, and was imprisoned in 1569 and beheaded in 1572.

Catholic Rebellion in Her Favor.

In 1569 the Earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland headed a rebellion of the English Roman Catholics against Queen Elizabeth, with the object of liberating the Queen of Scots and restoring the Popish religion in England; but, as the Catholic masses of England, turning a deaf ear to Pope, Jesuit and noble, remained loyal to their queen, the rebellion was easily crushed; and the rebel leaders were tried, condemned and beheaded.

Bull of Pope Pius V.

In 1570 Pope Pius V. issued a bull declaring England's Protestant queen destitute of all title to her crown and absolving her subjects from all allegiance to her. As Mary would be Queen of England if Elizabeth was not, the Pope's declaration was a bold step in Mary's cause.

Elizabeth's Perilous Situation.

As the Queen of England was the head and protectress of the Protestant religion in Europe, she was the constant object of Catholic fury, and her situation was always an extremely perilous one. It was necessary for her to act with extreme discretion and caution, and she consequently considered it prudent to continue her intercourse with the French court; but she accorded to the French ambassador, a man of honor and humanity, such a reception as left him in no doubt as to her real sentiments concerning the Massacre of St. Bartholomew, in 1572.

Wisdom of Her Peace Policy.

It would have been folly for Queen Elizabeth, in the early part of her reign, to have courted a conflict with any of the great Catholic powers of Europe, especially with Spain, as her title to the English crown was so precarious, and as her kingdom had a population of not more than six millions, without soldiers, ships or allies. Time and peace were her great needs to enable her to establish her personal authority, to plant the Church of England on a solid basis, to develop the resources of her kingdom and to build up a navy.

Her Artful Diplomacy.

The resources of Elizabeth and her Ministers were constantly taxed to their utmost to preserve peace and to gain time. For this reason she alternately raised and dashed the hopes of half a dozen royal suitors who desired to marry her. For the same reason she engaged in incessant negotiations and continual intrigues with foreign powers,

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holding Spain in check by threatening an alliance with France, and keeping France at bay through fear of an alliance with Spain, really deceiving neither, but outwitting and perplexing both. Thus, while accomplishing her object, the preservation of peace, Queen Elizabeth acquired that reputation for duplicity and mendacity, in her public and private relations, which has left so indelible a stain on her memory.

Her Partial Religious Toleration.

Whether intentionally designed or not, the moderate ground which Queen Elizabeth took in religion contributed to her personal honor and to the peace of England. While requiring conformity to the usages of the Protestant State Church of England, she punished none for their religious opinions, and this was a step far in advance of her predecessors and of the age in which she lived. Had she taken ground with either Catholic or Puritan extreme she would sooner or later have been confronted with a Puritan or Catholic revolt. As it was, the great mass of both Catholic and Puritan extremes remained as staunch in their loyalty to their queen as did the adherents of the Established Church, and rallied with fervent devotion to the royal standard when the independence of England was threatened by Philip II. of Spain.

Catholic Plots against Her Life.

English priests educated at the English Catholic seminaries at Douay and Rheims, in France, were taught that the assassination of heretical sovereigns, especially of Queen Elizabeth, was a meritorious act, and that whoever should lose his life in such an attempt would be sure of eternal happiness. Large numbers of these English seminary priests and Jesuits poured into England, and were constantly engaged in plots against Elizabeth's throne and life. Many of these were tortured for the purpose of obtaining information as to the designs of the Catholic party in England, and were put to death.

Executions.

Robert Southwell's Sad End.

Among those who thus suffered was the English poet, Robert Southwell, whose fate was a most melancholy one. After long imprisonment, he demanded release or death, whereupon Burleigh said that if he was so anxious to be hanged he could be accommodated, and he was executed in 1595.

Elizabeth's Aid to French Huguenots.

Queen Elizabeth retaliated on the annoyances caused her by the seminary priests and the Jesuits by allowing the Huguenots of France to enlist men in England, by loaning money to the Queen of Navarre, and by using her influence with the German princes in behalf of the Huguenots. The atrocious Massacre of St. Bartholomew—that frightful slaughter of Huguenots—excited horror and alarm in England; and the English queen made no secret of her indignation and disgust—feelings that she shared with her subjects.

The Massacre of St. Bartholomew and the brutalities of the Spaniards when they took Antwerp convinced England's queen and

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Her Danger from Catholic Hostility.

her Ministers that the Roman Catholics of Continental Europe had combined for a bloody extirpation of Protestantism. Elizabeth's great danger was the hostility of the Catholic party in and out of England. The strength and activity of the English Catholics gave grounds for the fear that they might, with the aid of the Kings of France and Spain, turn against Queen Elizabeth and repeat in England the horrors, barbarities and atrocities which they had enacted on the Continent.

Sir Francis Drake's Cruises and Piracies.

To strike a deadly blow at the Spanish power, that bold, buccaneering Englishman, Sir Francis Drake, was permitted by his queen to cruise along the shores of the Spanish American possessions and to waylay the treasure-laden galleons that sailed annually from Peru to Spain. Although this was piracy when England and Spain were nominally at peace, it was amply offset by the Spanish king's secret plots.

Exile and Execution of Jesuits and Seminary Priests.

The activity of the seminary priests convinced the English queen that many a dagger was sharpened for her assassination. A fanatical Jesuit named Campian was detected in a plot against her life, and was executed in 1581. All Jesuits and seminary priests were banished from England on penalty of death; and no less than two hundred are said to have been executed on the charge of "pretending to the power of absolving subjects from their allegiance." The assassination of Prince William of Orange, the illustrious founder of the Dutch Republic, in 1584, by a hired agent of the King of Spain, was a direct result of the teachings of the seminary priests.

Elizabeth and the Revolted Netherlanders.

The plots of her enemies thus forced Queen Elizabeth in self-defense to become the ally of the Huguenots in France, and of the revolted burghers of the Netherlands, whose freedom and prosperity the armies of Philip II. of Spain were exterminating with fire and sword. When Antwerp, the principal market and banking center of Europe, was taken and destroyed, in 1585, one-third of its manufacturers and merchants removed to London, which at once rose to the front rank of commercial cities.

Her Aid to the Dutch Republic.

The assassination of Prince William of Orange and the cruelties of the Spaniards when they captured Antwerp induced the Netherlanders to offer the sovereignty of their country to the English queen. Elizabeth considered it prudent to decline the proffered honor; but, as she was determined to prevent the subjugation of the revolted provinces by the Spanish king's armies, she agreed to furnish the Netherlanders military and financial aid. She accordingly sent an expedition of eight thousand troops under Robert Dudley, Earl of Leicester, her favorite general, into the Netherlands to aid the Dutch Republic in establishing its independence of Philip II. of Spain. This Earl of

Expedition of Robert Dudley, Earl of Leicester.

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ELIZABETH SIGNING THE DEATH WARRANT OF MARY, QUEEN OF SCOTS

From the Painting by J. Schrader

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Leicester was a son of the wicked Earl of Northumberland during the reign of Edward VI.

Death of Sir Philip Sidney.

The English expedition met with a severe loss in the death of Sir Philip Sidney, who was mortally wounded in the battle of Zutphen, September 22, 1586. This model knight and ideal gentleman was equally distinguished as a courtier, a soldier and an author, and was one of the courtiers of Queen Elizabeth, who called him "the jewel of her dominions." He was also known as the "Flower of Chivalrie" and "the darling of the court and camp." As he lay stretched on the ground his attendants brought him a cup of water to quench his raging thirst. Just as he was raising the cup to his lips he saw a poor wounded soldier near him looking wistfully at it, whereupon he said: "Take this water to him; his necessity is greater than mine." The gallant Sidney—so brave, courteous, eloquent, accomplished and learned—passed away at the early age of thirty-two, and has always been ranked as one of the most perfect characters of history.

Formidable Plot in Favor of Mary Stuart.

In 1585 the English Parliament passed a law for the punishment of persons plotting against the sovereign for the purpose of securing the crown. Mary, Queen of Scots, was the first victim of this law. Of the many conspiracies among the English Roman Catholics for Elizabeth's dethronement and Mary's elevation to the English throne, the last and most dangerous was that detected in 1586, organized by Anthony Babbington, a wealthy gentleman, and John Savage and John Ballard, priests of the English seminary at Rheims, in France.

Its Detection.

The conspirators intended to assassinate Elizabeth and release Mary at the same moment. The Spanish ambassador at Paris had promised to aid the conspirators with his sovereign's troops; and it was believed that these Spanish troops, with the assistance of the English Roman Catholics, would be able to place the Queen of Scots on the throne of England. The plot was detected by the vigilance of Sir Francis Walsingham, Queen Elizabeth's Secretary of State, and the conspirators were seized and executed.

Mary's Complicity and Condemnation.

The Queen of Scots herself was implicated in the conspiracy, and a commission of peers was appointed to ascertain her complicity in it. As before, Mary's letters were the chief evidence of her guilt. Queen Elizabeth was obliged to act in defense of her throne and her life, and her Council and Parliament considered Mary's execution a state necessity. She was therefore pronounced guilty and condemned to death, October 25, 1586.

Her Death-warrant Signed by Elizabeth.

Queen Elizabeth appeared reluctant to consent to the execution of the unfortunate Mary, although she felt no peace as long as she was alive. It was a severe remedy, but inevitable. Finally, after waiting several months, the English queen signed the death-warrant; and her

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Prime Minister, Cecil, Lord Burleigh, obtained it from her private secretary, Davison, and had it hastily executed.

Mary's Last Hours. The warrant was brought to Fotheringay Castle, in Northamptonshire, Mary's last prison, February 7, 1587, by the Earls of Shrewsbury, Kent, Derby and Cumberland, who were accompanied by two executioners, and who informed her that she must prepare for death at eight o'clock the next morning. She received their message with composure and seemed perfectly resigned to her sad fate. She employed herself during the rest of the day in writing letters to her friends. She retired to rest at her usual time, but arose after a few hours' sleep, and passed the remainder of the night in prayer.

The Fatal Morning. Early in the morning she attired herself in a rich dress of silk and velvet, the only one which she had reserved for this solemn occasion. Thomas Andrews, the Under Sheriff of Northamptonshire, entered her room at eight o'clock and informed her that the fatal hour had arrived and that he must attend her to the place of execution. She replied that she was ready, bid her servants farewell, and proceeded, supported by two of her guards, and followed the Sheriff with a serene countenance, with a long veil of white linen on her head, and with an ivory crucifix and a prayer-book in her hand. She then passed into another hall of the castle, where a scaffold was erected and covered with black; the noblemen and the Sheriff going before, and Andrew Melville, her master of the household, bearing up her train.

Scenes at the Scaffold. As soon as Mary was seated Beale commenced reading the death-warrant. Then Fletcher, Dean of Peterborough, who stood outside the railing, repeated a long exhortation, which she desired him to forbear, as she firmly resolved to die a Roman Catholic. The hall was filled with spectators, who beheld the ill-fated queen with pity and distress; while her beauty gleamed through her sufferings, and was still remarkable in this fatal moment, though dimmed by age and affliction.

Mary's Execution. The two executioners knelt and asked her pardon; and she said that she forgave them and all those responsible for her death, as freely as she hoped for forgiveness from her God; after which she solemnly protested her innocence. Her eyes were then covered with a linen handkerchief, and she laid her head on the block without any fear or trepidation. Then she recited a Psalm and repeated a pious ejaculation, and her head was severed from her body by two strokes from the executioners' axes.

Her Character. Thus perished Mary, Queen of Scots, in the forty-fifth year of her age and the nineteenth year of her captivity in England, at Fotheringay Castle, February 8, 1587. She was a woman of great beauty and accomplishments; and the beauty of her person, the graces of her air and the charms of her conversation combined to make her one of

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the most amiable of women and to produce a deep impression upon all who came in contact with her. She was ambitious and active in her temper, but inclined to cheerfulness and society. She had sufficiently masculine virtues to give her vigor in the prosecution of her purposes, without relinquishing the feminine graces which constitute the proper ornament of her sex.

Her Many Misfortunes and Claim to Sympathy.

Her numerous misfortunes, the solitude of her long captivity, and the persecutions to which she had been subjected on account of her religion, had made her somewhat bigoted in her later years; and, considering the prevalent spirit of the age, it is not surprising that her zeal, her resentment and her interest, combined, induced her to give her consent to a design which conspirators who were actuated by zeal alone had formed against the English queen's life. Her brilliant qualities of mind and person, the calm dignity with which she bore misfortune, and her affecting death-scene, have excited universal sympathy and consequently thrown a veil of charity over the frailties of her life and character.

Her Sad Career.

She had become Queen of Scotland in her infancy. From the age of six to that of nineteen she had been trained to levity and dissipation in the French court. From her nineteenth to her twenty-seventh year she had lived and reigned in Scotland, in a succession of follies and sorrows and in the midst of enemies. She had passed the remaining nineteen years of her life in miserable captivity in England.

Judgment as to the Two Queens.

The judgment of this great event has been much affected by the personal differences between the two queens. Mary's extraordinary beauty and grace of manner fascinated all who saw her and almost all who have read her romantic history. Elizabeth, though a great queen, was a coarse, vain and disagreeable woman; but she was the champion of progress, freedom and enlightenment; while the Queen of Scots, though she may have been unconscious of the fact, was the representative of an iron despotism. If English freedom, instead of the soul-crushing tyranny of Spain, was to become the leading principle in Europe, the execution of Mary Stuart was a political necessity.

Mary's Last Appeal.

In a letter which Mary wrote to Elizabeth near the close of her long captivity, when all worldly ambitions had given way to longings for liberty, she said: "Let me go, let me retire from this island to some solitude, where I may prepare my soul to die. Grant this, and I will sign away every right which either I or mine can claim."

Her Bequest to Philip II. of Spain.

Elizabeth paid no attention to this touching appeal; and the Queen of Scots then bequeathed all her rights to the English crown to Philip II. of Spain—rights which Philip promptly claimed and began the most formidable preparations to enforce; as we shall presently see.

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Elizabeth's Grief and Rage.

In order to put the responsibility for Mary's execution on her servants, Queen Elizabeth affected great grief and rage at the unseemly haste with which the death-warrant had been carried into effect; imprisoned her private secretary, Davison, for having handed the warrant to her Prime Minister, and wore mourning and for some days shut herself up with only her women. King James VI. of Scotland expressed great resentment at his mother's execution, and threatened Elizabeth with a war; but the English queen succeeded in appeasing a king who was of a most peaceful disposition.

England's Maritime Growth.

In the meantime England was enjoying unparalleled prosperity, and its maritime growth was truly wonderful. The moderate and pacific policy which Elizabeth had so persistently pursued for thirty years had produced the happiest results. The debts of the crown were honestly paid, and the expenses of the government were defrayed by the regular revenues, without having recourse to taxation. The nation had made a rapid and healthful advance in wealth and power. Its industries were characterized by unparalleled thrift, and its commerce covered all seas, pouring the wealth of every land and clime into London, which was then just becoming the great emporium of the civilized world. Both the navy and the merchant marine of England were vastly augmented.

England's Bold Navigators.

The thirst for adventure and discovery had sent intrepid English seamen into every quarter of the globe, and the glowing reports of the wonders which these had discovered stimulated fresh expeditions, thus opening new avenues of trade to English enterprise. This adventurous spirit led Chancellor to penetrate the frozen Arctic seas to the east, thus discovering the Russian port of Archangel and opening a lucrative trade with the empire of the Czar. This same adventurous spirit also induced John Davis and Martin Frobisher to explore the same Northern ocean to the west, in search of a North-west passage to India. The same spirit sent Sir John Hawkins into tropical waters, thus opening an inexhaustible source of wealth in African ivory, gold-dust and slaves.

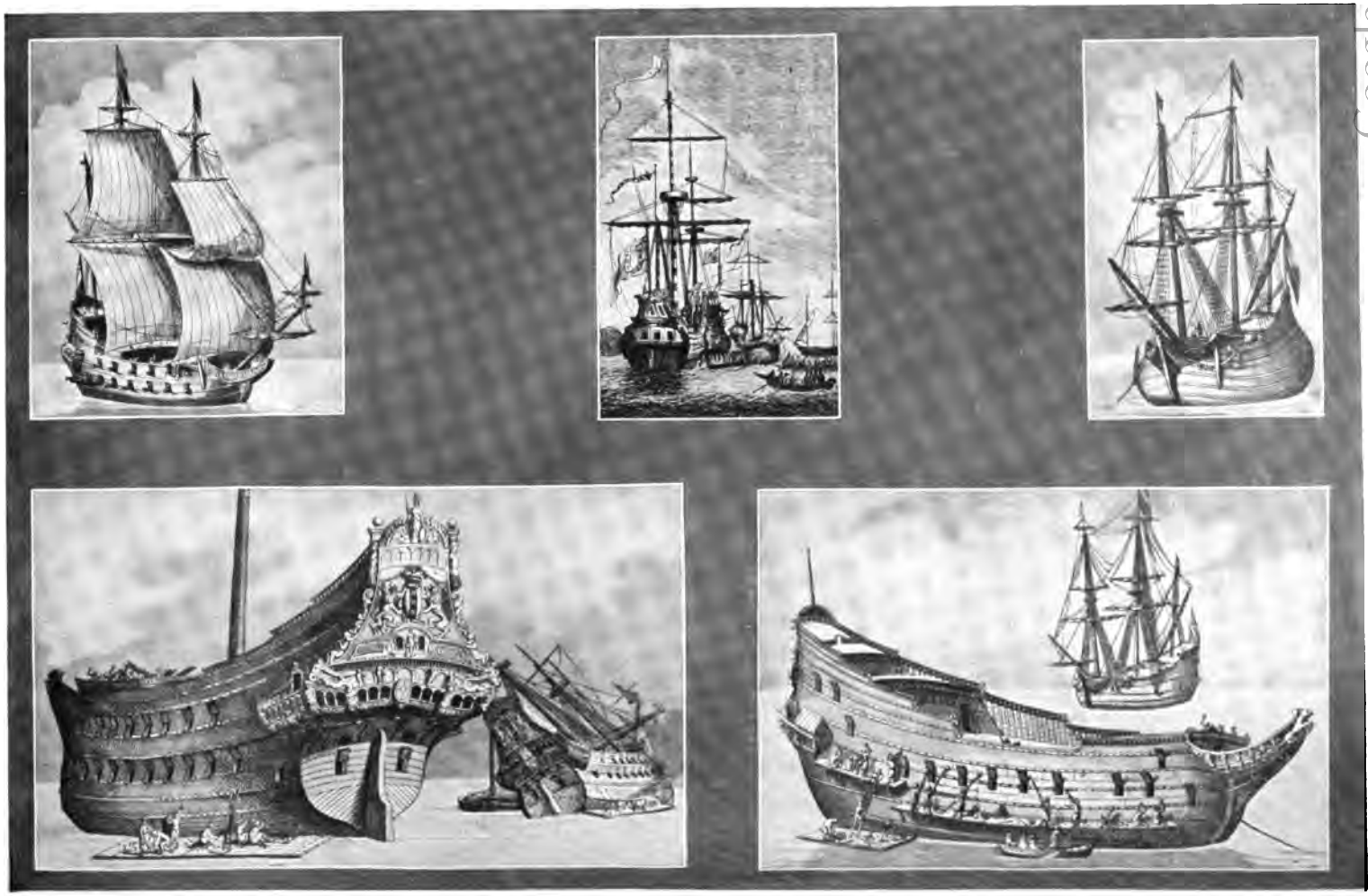
Sir John Hawkins and the Slave Trade.

Southampton merchants acquired wealth by their traffic in the ivory and gold-dust of Guinea, and Sir John Hawkins conceived the bold idea of transporting laborers from the populous coasts of Guinea to the untilled soil of the New World. The slave-trade, so justly condemned by the enlightened humanity of the nineteenth century, was encouraged by philanthropists of the Elizabethan age as a means of relieving the feeble natives of America, thousands of whom were perishing from their insufferable toils under Spanish overseers.

English Commerce.

An extensive English commerce was growing up with the ports of the North, Baltic and Mediterranean seas. Every English harbor had

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MERCHANTMEN AND WAR VESSELS OF THE SIXTEENTH AND SEVENTEENTH CENTURIES

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for a long time sent its fishing boats into the neighboring waters, but during Elizabeth's reign England began to rival France in the number of vessels employed in the cod-fisheries of Newfoundland and the whale-fisheries of the Polar seas.

English Aid to the French Huguenots and the Dutch Republic.

The atrocious Massacre of St. Bartholomew in France and the merciless slaughter of the patriot Netherlanders by the Spaniards, which had fired Protestant England with fierce resentment, was another cause for the maritime development of England. But England's politic queen coolly continued negotiations for marriage with a Catholic prince of France, even after the Massacre of St. Bartholomew; and for a long time she looked with seeming indifference at the cruelties of the Duke of Alva, the Spanish governor in the Netherlands. At last the English people took the matter into their own hands and made war on their own account, thousands of them flocking to the Netherlands and joining the armies of the newly-founded Dutch Republic.

English Privateers, or "Sea-dogs."

It was then that the English "sea-dogs," commissioned as privateers by the French Prince of Condé and by the Prince of Orange, or flying the French and Dutch flags without commissions, simply pirates, swarmed in all the seas frequented by French or Spanish merchantmen. With the assistance of the English people all along the coast, and frequently by the English officers themselves, prizes were constantly run into secret inlets, where their cargoes were discharged. Sir Francis Drake, the boldest spirit of them all, haunted the unguarded coasts of Spanish America, burning towns and intercepting Spanish galleons en route to Cadiz, with their precious cargoes of gold, silver and diamonds for the King of Spain. It was in such schools that the brave and hardy mariners of England were trained for the great struggle with Philip II. of Spain, which soon followed the execution of Mary, Queen of Scots.

Sir Francis Drake's Exploits.

Drake's Circumnavigation of the Globe.

Sir Francis Drake, the first Englishman who navigated the Pacific Ocean, explored the Pacific coast of America as far north as Cape Orford, in Oregon, in 1579, named the country *New Albion* and took possession of it in the name of his queen; after which he returned to England by way of the Cape of Good Hope, thus completing the second circumnavigation of the globe.

Issue between Elizabeth and Philip II.

Matters were rapidly coming to a crisis between Elizabeth and Philip II. For a long time the Queen of England had been embittered by the Spanish king's secret efforts to excite revolt among her Roman Catholic subjects. For the same length of time Philip II. had been enraged at Elizabeth's duplicity in secretly aiding the Netherlanders and shielding English pirates preying on Spanish commerce, while professing peace with Spain. The crisis was hastened when Elizabeth, under the pressure of English public sentiment, finally threw off the

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mask by sending the Earl of Leicester with an English force to the Netherlands.

Approaching Crisis. When Sir Francis Drake returned from one of his expeditions, enriched with the gold and jewels taken from Spanish galleons, and Philip II. demanded that the "pirate" be surrendered to him, Elizabeth publicly conferred the honor of knighthood on her buccaneering seaman, and wore the captured jewels in her hair. The execution of Mary, Queen of Scots, finally ended the Spanish king's irresolution, and thus matters were brought to a crisis between him and England's great queen.

Action of Pope Sixtus V. and Philip II. The execution of Mary, Queen of Scots, aroused the indignation of the Roman Catholics throughout Europe. Pope Sixtus V.—who so firmly maintained the discipline of the Church—outlawed England's Protestant queen; and Philip II. of Spain was secretly preparing to avenge Mary's death, to dethrone Elizabeth, to assert his own claim to the English crown bequeathed to him by Mary, to subjugate England, France and the Netherlands at one blow, and to establish a powerful Roman Catholic empire in the West of Europe under the supremacy of Spain.

Philip II. and His Invincible Armada. With these great objects in view, Philip II. now began to utilize all the vast resources of the great dominion of Spain. For three years he had been slowly collecting ships and great magazines of stores in the Tagus; and he now fitted out a gigantic fleet of one hundred and fifty vessels, which he boastfully called the *Invincible Armada*. The Roman Catholics throughout Europe felt the fullest confidence in the success of this gigantic Spanish naval armament, which had been blessed by Pope Sixtus V., so that it was looked upon as engaged in a holy war, and kindled among the Spaniards an enthusiasm like that of the Crusades.

Drake's Feats on the Coast of Spain. Queen Elizabeth heard of the Spanish king's secret preparations, and the English sea-rovers were all called home. Sir Francis Drake, with thirty ships, hovered about the coast of Spain, seizing Spanish merchantmen and attacking unguarded points. He boldly entered the harbor of Cadiz and destroyed the ships and stores collected there, thus delaying the sailing of the Invincible Armada for many months. Altogether Drake burned more than a hundred ships.

Elizabeth's Defensive Preparations. Undismayed by the coming storm, Queen Elizabeth made extensive preparations for defense, relying on the superior skill and bravery of her seamen to overcome the Spanish superiority in numbers. The great vigor displayed by England's mighty queen was warmly seconded by the ardor and zeal of her subjects, all of whom rallied to the royal standard in defense of their national independence. Every town in England contributed men and ships for the national defense. Nobles

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and common people, Protestants and Catholics—with the latter of whom love of country was stronger than love of Church—labored together with zeal and energy; all being inspired by the indomitable spirit of their Protestant queen. Catholic gentry and Puritan traders alike offered their ships, all manned and equipped, for the great struggle with the Invincible Armada.

Elizabeth and Her Army.

Elizabeth called out an army of forty thousand men and placed it under the command of her favorite general, the Earl of Leicester. Side by side in the muster of this army at Tilbury stood Churchman, Puritan and Catholic, all alike ready to offer up their lives in defense of their queen and of their country's independence. Elizabeth appeared on horseback before her troops and made them a short speech, which greatly raised their courage and zeal. Among other things she said: "I know I have the body of a weak and feeble woman, but I have the heart of a king, and of a King of England too, and think proud scorn that Parma or Spain, or any prince of Europe, should dare to invade the borders of my realms, for which, rather than any dishonor come upon me, I will take up arms myself."

England's Naval Commanders.

To show her confidence in the loyalty of her Roman Catholic subjects, Elizabeth placed her fleets under the command of Lord Howard of Effingham, a prominent English Roman Catholic nobleman; and under him served Sir Francis Drake, Sir John Hawkins and Martin Frobisher—then the most renowned seamen in Europe.

Sailing of the Spanish Armada.

The Invincible Armada, under the command of the Duke of Medina Sidonia, sailed from Lisbon for the English Channel, May 31, 1588; but, as it was overtaken by a storm, it put into the harbor of Corunna to refit. It made its appearance in the English Channel, July 19, 1588, in the form of a cresent, extending seven miles from wing to wing, and composed of one hundred and fifty ships. Lord Howard at once sailed out of Plymouth harbor with an English fleet only half as large as the Armada. The English knew the coast, and their bravery and skill were superior to those of the Spaniards. The huge and unwieldy Spanish galleons sailed slowly up the Channel, harassed at every point by the lighter and better managed craft of the English, who undauntedly encountered the Armada and "plucked its feathers one by one."

The Armada's Approach.

Still the Armada sailed on its way steadily, and anchored in Calais Roads, July 27, 1588, to wait for the Spanish army of thirty thousand men, under the Duke of Parma, which was to invade England from the Netherlands. As this Spanish army had been at Dunkirk, ready to land on the coast of England as soon as the Armada should arrive to protect its passage across the English Channel, Lord Howard saw the necessity of decisive action, and he resolved upon closer fighting.

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Howard's Fire-ships and Drake's "Sea-dogs."

Accordingly, the next night, July 28, 1588, Lord Howard floated eight fire-ships into the very midst of the Armada, as the huge galleons lay crowded together at anchor. The affrighted Spaniards cut their cables and fled to the open sea, being drifted by the wind in a wavering line along the coast. At dawn Drake's fearless "sea-dogs" attacked the broken line, and the battle lasted until sunset, with the advantage on the side of the English, whose speed was double that of their clumsy foes, and who were able to fire four shots to the Spaniards' one. One Spanish galleon after another was captured, sunk, or forced on shore, and the still large but panic-stricken Armada was driven northward.

Retreat of the Armada.

Utterly humiliated and helpless, the Spanish admiral no longer thought of the conquest of England, but only of safety for his broken and dispersed fleet, and he accordingly resolved to return home. But, as the wind blew from the south, he was obliged to sail northward along the eastern shores of England, around Scotland and southward along the western coast of Ireland. The English were obliged to give up the pursuit because their ammunition became exhausted, and the fleeing Spanish galleons which had escaped the destructive effects of the English fire-ships and of Drake's "sea-dogs" were soon lost in the North Sea.

Destruction of the Armada.

A furious tempest among the Orkneys dashed many of the disabled and unwieldy galleons to pieces upon the rocky shores. The helpless crews that escaped watery graves were massacred by the savage natives. Eight thousand of the Spanish chivalry are said to have perished in storms on the western coast of Ireland. Only a third of the Invincible Armada returned to the shores of Spain, nearly a hundred ships and fourteen thousand men having been lost.

Philip II. and His Admiral.

Spain was filled with mourning for the loss of her bravest and noblest sailors and warriors. When King Philip II. was informed of the great catastrophe he remarked: "I sent it against man and not against the billows." When the Duke of Medina Sidonia appeared before the king the latter said: "We cannot blame you for what has happened; we cannot struggle against the will of God." The triumphant English recognized the fact that the elements had contributed largely to their victory. An old English medal commemorating the event bore the following inscription:

"Flavit Jehovah et dissipati sunt."
"Jehovah blew and they were scattered."

Results of the Destruction of the Armada.

The destruction of the Spanish Armada caused unbounded rejoicings in England and throughout Protestant Europe, and the moral consequences of the event were very great. It virtually secured the inde-

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pendence of the Dutch Republic; it inspired the Huguenots in France with hope, and it raised the courage of the Protestants throughout Europe. From that time Spain rapidly declined in power and national greatness, and her naval superiority was broken; while England took her place as a great maritime power, and her supremacy on the seas was established.

Progress of the War.

The war between England and Spain lasted some years longer, and a host of English privateers under the queen's commission preyed upon Spanish commerce. With the energy of despair, Philip II. raised another Armada in 1597; but this only brought Sir Francis Drake and his "sea-dogs" again to the Spanish coast. This second Armada was shattered by fierce storms; and Cadiz was plundered and burned by Drake, who again destroyed its ships and stores. Drake again became the scourge of Spanish America, taking treasure-laden galleons and destroying settlements; but the English queen and people had no more fear of Spanish power.

Drake's "Sea-dogs."

Elizabeth's Progresses.

Queen Elizabeth was very fond of traveling about her kingdom, or making *progresses*, as it was called, and visiting her wealthy subjects at their own homes, upon which occasions great entertainments were given, the most celebrated of these being that provided by the Earl of Leicester at Kenilworth Castle, which lasted several days.

Sir Thomas Gresham and His Exchange.

Sir Thomas Gresham, a wealthy merchant of London—who erected a building for an Exchange at his own cost—entertained the queen at his magnificent house called Osterley. After viewing the entire mansion, Elizabeth remarked, as she was retiring for the night, that "it would have been much more handsome if the courtyard had been divided by a wall." Sir Thomas, hearing the remark, instantly put such a number of masons and laborers to work that when the queen arose on the following morning she found that a wall had arisen, as if by magic.

Burleigh and Walsingham.

Cecil, Lord Burleigh, was Queen Elizabeth's Prime Minister during the first forty years of her reign, dying in 1598. Sir Francis Walsingham was her Secretary of State. Though she had the wisdom to entrust the affairs of state to statesmen and men of sense, she had for favorites men of little ability and still less virtue, and filled her court with the most frivolous characters, with whom she could unbend the cares of royalty. As she was possessed of a gay and lively disposition, she sometimes treated her courtiers with an extraordinary degree of familiarity, or a strange rudeness, such as slapping them on the back and patting their cheeks; but if any of them presumed upon such freedom she could instantly resume her dignity, and, by a severe look or a cutting word, check all further forwardness; so that she knew very well how to keep up her own dignity.

Elizabeth's Favorites.

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Robert Dudley, Earl of Leicester.

Elizabeth's first chief favorite was Robert Dudley, whom she created Earl of Leicester. His handsome person and pleasing address won the queen's favor for him; and his assiduous attentions, which so pleased her vanity, retained that favor for him. He was guilty of many infamous crimes; but he was able to deceive the queen, both as to his merits and as to his abilities; and he continued in her favor until his death, in 1588, in the very midst of the rejoicings with which England greeted the defeat of the Spanish Armada.

Sir Walter Raleigh.

Another of Elizabeth's favorites was Sir Walter Raleigh, who was born in 1552, and who, after passing through Oxford University with great reputation, volunteered as a soldier to aid the Huguenots of France and the struggling Netherlanders. There he improved his time in acquiring valuable knowledge, so that when he returned home, in 1578, he was considered one of the most accomplished gentlemen in England in all respects. As his active mind would not permit him to be idle, he zealously engaged in an expedition which his half-brother, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, a distinguished commander, was fitting out to make settlements in America.

His Expeditions to America.

In his first voyage, in 1579, Gilbert was driven back by storms and Spanish war vessels. In his second voyage, in 1583, he explored the coasts of Newfoundland, Nova Scotia and Maine; but his vessel was wrecked on his return voyage to England, and all on board perished. In 1584 Raleigh sent Philip Amidas and Arthur Barlow on a voyage to America. They reached the coast of the present North Carolina, and on their return to England they gave such a glowing description of the country which they had visited that Queen Elizabeth, in consideration of her unmarried state, named the territory *Virginia*. In 1585 and 1587 Raleigh made two unsuccessful attempts to plant settlements in Virginia; the first attempt being made by an expedition under Sir Richard Grenville, which remained a year on Roanoke Island and then returned to England; and the second effort being undertaken by an expedition under John White, who returned to England for more colonists, leaving a colony on Roanoke Island, but upon whose return in 1590 the colony had disappeared. Newfoundland has the distinction of being England's oldest colony.

Raleigh's Gallant Act.

Though Raleigh was so unfortunate in his colonization schemes, he acquired a knowledge of seamanship which afterward made him one of the most skillful English naval commanders. A man of his great abilities could not fail to gain the queen's favor, but he won her special regard by one gallant act. As the queen was on one occasion walking abroad, attended by some of her courtiers, she came to a muddy place which she could not cross without wetting her feet. Raleigh instantly took a new and very elegant cloak from his shoulder and spread it on

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the ground, thus enabling the queen to pass over clean and dry. By this act Raleigh won the queen's good graces, and a wag remarked that the sacrifice of a *cloak* obtained for him many a *good suit*.

First Appearance of the Earl of Essex.

The great favor which Raleigh enjoyed at court enabled him to procure his extensive grants of lands in America. The Earl of Leicester was alarmed at the queen's rapidly-growing favor for Raleigh, and brought forward his own son-in-law, Robert Devereux, Earl of Essex, as a competitor. This young English nobleman possessed a noble and generous nature; and his lofty and impetuous spirit won the queen's heart, though it did not stoop to that sycophancy by which all others won her favor.

His First Quarrel with Elizabeth.

Elizabeth permitted the Earl of Essex to speak to her with more freedom than she tolerated in any of her old and faithful servants. On one occasion he became so impulsive in an argument with the queen as wholly to forget the rules of good breeding, and turned his back upon her in a contemptuous manner. She flew into a rage at this and gave him a sound box on the ear, telling him that she would not tolerate his impertinence. Instead of making an apology for his insult, the impetuous young nobleman laid his hand on his sword, declaring that he would not endure such treatment, and retired from court.

Their Reconciliation.

The friends of the Earl of Essex sought to persuade him that a blow from a woman ought not to be resented; but he said that the character of *woman* was sunk in that of *sovereign*, and refused to make any advances toward a reconciliation. The queen, however, was too fond of him to endure his absence with patience. The quarrel appeared to increase her affection for him, and she recalled him and bestowed more favor upon him than before.

Great Men of Elizabeth's Time.

"The spacious times of great Elizabeth" will always be known as one of the most brilliant literary eras in the history of England. The impulse given to learning in previous reigns, favored by the long peace under the maiden queen, commenced bearing fruit; and men of genius shone in every field of intellectual labor. Sir Philip Sidney, Sir Walter Raleigh, the great divine Richard Hooker, the great philosopher Lord Bacon, the poet-laureate Edmund Spenser and the immortal dramatist William Shakespeare—all these are names that shed luster upon the reign of the maiden queen, no less than did the wise statesmanship of Burleigh and Walsingham, and the voyages of Drake, Hawkins, Frobisher, Cavendish and others.

Elizabeth's Learning.

Queen Elizabeth herself made some pretensions to literature, and was the author of some poems. She was vain of her learning, as well as of her personal beauty. To an address in Greek from the University of Cambridge she replied in the same language. On one occasion, when the Polish ambassador said something to displease her, she made

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a spirited reply in very good Latin; after which she turned to her attendants and said: "I have been forced, my lords, to scour up my Latin, which has been long rusting."

English Explorations.

Men's minds were stimulated to fresh thought by the opening of "new heavens and a new earth." While such great astronomers as Kepler in Germany, Galileo in Italy and Tycho Brahe in Denmark were familiarizing the grand discoveries of Copernicus concerning the solar and stellar systems, daring explorers were acquainting Europe with hitherto-unknown regions of our own planet. Thus the frosty splendors of the Frigid zone, the barbaric wealth of Mexico and Peru, the jeweled magnificance of imperial courts in India and China, the tropical verdure of islands in previously-unexplored oceans—all these were made known to Europe by the marvelous descriptions of these bold navigators. The bonds which had fettered human thought and enterprise were broken.

Lord Burleigh and the Earl of Essex.

The wise and cautious Cecil, Lord Burleigh, who had retained Elizabeth's confidence since her accession in 1558, had always sought to check the queen's fondness for the Earl of Essex, who would have kept England constantly in a state of war, for the gratification of his thirst for military glory; but after Burleigh's death, in 1598, the Earl of Essex remained without a rival in the queen's regard.

Ireland's Condition.

Ireland, though nominally a possession of the crown of England since the reign of Henry II., was only partially conquered; and the *English Pale* embraced only Dublin, Drogheda, Wexford, Waterford and Cork, with a small extent of territory around each. Though Henry VIII. had made his strong hand felt throughout the Emerald Isle, humbling both the Norman and the Celtic chiefs who had assumed almost royal authority, and demolishing their castles, his effort to "make Ireland English," by forbidding the Irish national dress, language, laws and social customs, utterly failed; and his proceedings in Church affairs contributed vastly to unite all Erin in defense of the monasteries and the shrines of the saints.

Irish Rebellion under Hugh O'Neill, Earl of Tyrone.

The disorders which had existed throughout Ireland reached a crisis in *Tyrone's Rebellion*, in 1598. Hugh O'Neill, Earl of Tyrone, an Irish chief, had been educated at the court of Queen Elizabeth, who placed him at the head of the great Irish clan of O'Neill, in a struggle with a rival Irish chieftain; but when he became master of the North of Ireland he defied the power that had raised him, and maintained his resistance for several years. A victory which he won over an English army at Blackwater, in 1598, gave him an adequate supply of arms and ammunition.

In 1599 Queen Elizabeth appointed her last favorite, the Earl of Essex, to the dignity of Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, for the express

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purpose of suppressing the rebellion of the Earl of Tyrone. With the utmost confidence in his abilities, the Earl of Essex hastened to Ireland, but soon found his task more difficult than he had expected; and, after some months of harassing warfare, he concluded a treaty with the rebellious Irish chieftain, in utter defiance to the queen's commands. Elizabeth sent her favorite a sharp reproof for this and other disobedience, and also ordered him to remain in Ireland until he received further instructions; but he instantly returned to England, and, to the queen's utter surprise, presented himself at court.

The Earl of Essex, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland.

His Return.

Splashed with dirt, the Earl of Essex rushed into the queen's presence-chamber, although he was well aware of how punctilious Elizabeth was about the neat and seemly apparel of those who approached her. As she was not there, he hastened to her bed-chamber, where she had scarcely risen, sitting with her hair about her face. He fell on his knees before her, and she was so taken by surprise at his sudden appearance that she received him most graciously; but when he had left, and she had time to reflect on his conduct, she regarded his last presumption as an aggravation of his previous faults; and when he appeared a few hours later he met with a very different reception, and was given into the custody of Lord Egerton.

His Reception by Queen Elizabeth.

Mental agitation now threw the Earl of Essex into a serious illness. The queen's affection returned when she was informed of her favorite's danger. She ordered eight physicians to consult on his case, and sent one of them with some broth, saying that if she could visit him consistently with her honor she would do so, the tears all the while running down her cheeks. Thereupon the Earl of Essex recovered and was permitted to remain in retirement in his own house.

Her Solicitude in His Illness.

After a long struggle between her affection for her favorite and her sense of justice, Elizabeth at length consented that the Earl of Essex should be called to account for his mismanagement of affairs in Ireland. He did not attempt to excuse himself, but made an humble submission to the queen, who received his contrite messages with great complacency. He then applied to the queen to renew the grant which she had formerly made to him; but she refused, with the remark that "an ungovernable beast must be stinted in his provender." This contemptuous expression was more than the proud heart of the Earl of Essex could endure, and he flew into an uncontrollable rage, during which he declared that "the queen, now that she was an old woman, was as crooked in her mind as in her person." This was reported to Elizabeth. It was bad enough to call her, who was so vain of her person, crooked; but to call her old was still worse.

Her Quarrel with Him.

The breach between the queen and her favorite now appeared irreparable. Utterly maddened by passion, the Earl of Essex entered

His Plot and Revolt

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into a treasonable correspondence with King James VI. of Scotland to dethrone Elizabeth, and endeavored to excite a riot in London; but he was arrested and committed to the Tower. His trial soon followed, and his guilt was so evident that the queen did not have the least pretext to grant him a pardon. Her affection for her favorite and her resentment for his recent conduct reduced Elizabeth to a pitable condition of mind, and a long and painful vacillation on her part followed. She signed the death-warrant; then countermanded it; again determined on his death; then felt a new return of tenderness.

The Queen's Vacillation.

Knowing his impetuous temper, the queen had in a moment of tenderness years before given the Earl of Essex a ring, assuring him that if he ever got into trouble his return of that ring would give him a favorable hearing. Now that he lay under sentence of death she looked confidently for the return of the ring; but, after waiting in vain day after day, and attributing his failure to send it to his obstinancy, the offended pride of the disappointed and resentful queen, both as sovereign and friend, led her to sign the death-warrant; and the unfortunate Earl of Essex was beheaded on Tower Hill, February 25, 1601, in the thirty-fourth year of his age.

The Earl of Essex and the Queen's Ring.

His Execution.

Two years afterward the Countess of Nottingham, one of Elizabeth's courtiers, when on her deathbed called the queen to her bedside and confessed that the Earl of Essex had just before his execution handed her the ring to return it to Her Majesty, but that she had withheld it at her husband's command. In a paroxysm of rage and grief, Queen Elizabeth shook the dying countess in her bed, crying: "God may forgive you, but I never can!"

Deathbed Confession of the Countess of Nottingham.

In her agony of grief and despair, Elizabeth shut herself up in her palace, and, throwing herself on the floor, she became a prey to a deep melancholy from which she never recovered. Though the Irish rebellion was subdued by Lord Mountjoy, and many English victories were won over the Spaniards, the poor queen took no heed. For ten days and nights she lay on the floor, supported by cushions. She refused to go to bed or to take anything whatever prescribed for her by her physician.

Elizabeth's Last Sad Days.

As the queen's end was visibly approaching, her attendants requested her to appoint her successor. When the name of Lord Beauchamp, a member of the royal family, was mentioned, she said, with a display of the old Tudor spirit: "I will have no rogue's son in my seat." King James VI. of Scotland was named, but the dying queen was speechless and could only signify her assent. Being too weak to make any resistance, she was laid in her bed; and the next morning, March 24, 1603, she died in the seventieth year of her age and the forty-fifth of her reign.

Her Appointed Successor.

Her Death.

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LAST MOMENTS OF QUEEN ELIZABETH

From the Painting by Paul Delaroche

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End of the Tudor Dynasty.

Thus, like her sister and predecessor, Elizabeth died broken-hearted. Such was the melancholy end of the most brilliant reign in English history; and thus ended the Tudor dynasty, which, comprising five reigns, had worn the English crown for one hundred and eighteen years (A. D. 1485–1603).

Elizabeth's Character.

Elizabeth was a good queen, but not a good woman. In character she had the most contradictory qualities; uniting, in a marked degree, her father's iron will, imperious temper and sound judgment with her mother's insincerity, vacillation and vanity. She was frequently exceedingly coarse in her manners and occasionally very profane in her speech.

Her Regard for Her Subjects.

Though Elizabeth was arbitrary in her rule, like her father, she was never a tyrant like him, and when the occasion required concession she knew how to yield. Two years before her death she granted many monopolies to favored individuals, but when she perceived that they had caused dissatisfaction she sent a message to the House of Commons reversing all the grants. To a committee sent to express the gratitude of the Commons for Her Majesty's gracious act, she returned her thanks for reminding her of an error into which she had fallen because of mistaken judgment. Said she to her Parliament: "I have desired to have the obedience of my subjects by love, and not by compulsion."

"Good Queen Bess."

Because of her earnest desire to win the affections and promote the welfare of her subjects, notwithstanding her faults, the English people have ever since looked back with pride and pleasure to "the golden days of Good Queen Bess."

SECTION XI.—MARY STUART AND REFORMATION IN SCOTLAND (A. D. 1513–1603).

James V., A. D. 1513–1542.

James V., an infant of two years, became King of Scotland upon the death of his father, James IV., in the disastrous battle of Flodden Field, in September, 1513. In the midst of the grief caused by that catastrophe, all Scotland was filled with alarm. Edinburgh was fortified with a wall, and preparations were made to resist the advance of the victorious English. These precautions were, however, unnecessary, as King Henry VIII. of England generously declined to press his advantage against his sister Margaret, the widow of King James IV.; and, as his own kingdom was safe, he disbanded his army.

Grief, Alarm and Precautions.

Margaret and the Duke of Albany.

The Scottish Parliament met at Perth and appointed the widowed Queen Margaret regent; but within a year she married the Earl of Angus, the head of the great Douglas family of Scotland; whereupon the Parliament made John, Duke of Albany, the High Admiral of

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France and the nephew of King James III. of Scotland, regent in her stead. Peace was also made with England. The great number of Frenchmen which the Duke of Albany brought with him to Scotland made him very unpopular at first; and Margaret at first refused to give up the young king to him, but she was besieged in Stirling Castle and forced to yield.

The Hamiltons and the Douglases.

The Hamiltons, headed by the Earl of Arran, and the Douglases, under the leadership of the Earl of Angus, distracted Scotland by the constant warfare which they kept up against each other. The regent, the Duke of Albany, aided by the French, put an end to the strife between the two hostile Scottish families. He seized the Earl of Angus and sent him to France, whence he soon made his escape to England and joined his wife, who had fled to that country. Lord Home and his brother, two of the most powerful of the Douglas faction, were seized, and beheaded after a mock trial.

The Duke of Albany and the French Garrisons.

The Duke of Albany went back to France about a year after his appointment as regent of Scotland, leaving Anthony de la Bastie, a Frenchman, as his representative in Scotland, and placing French garrisons in the Scottish fortresses, thus increasing the Scottish hatred of the French to the greatest degree. Anthony de la Bastie was killed by the Homes in revenge for the death of Lord Home. The feud between the Hamiltons and the Douglases was now renewed with more than its former violence, and the rival factions fought their battles in the very streets of Edinburgh. The Douglases were generally the successful party, and the Earl of Angus drove the Hamiltons from Edinburgh and held the city with an armed force. After remaining in France for five years, the Duke of Albany was induced to return to Scotland by the threats and entreaties of the Scottish Parliament, A. D. 1520.

Feuds of the Hamiltons and the Douglases.

Interference of Henry VIII. of England.

In 1522 King Henry VIII. of England commenced interfering in the affairs of Scotland by demanding that the Duke of Albany should be dismissed from the regency and that Scotland should renounce her alliance with France. The Scottish Parliament rejected the English king's demand and made preparations for war, and a desultory warfare followed between the English and the Scots along the border. The Duke of Albany greatly disgusted the Scottish nation by his mismanagement, and in 1524 he abandoned the regency and sailed for France.

Border War.

English and French Parties in Scotland.

After the Duke of Albany had left Scotland, Henry VIII. of England sought to force the Scots to renounce their alliance ith France, and in this he was warmly supported by his widowed sister Margaret, the mother of the boy King of Scotland. The head of the French party in Scotland was Cardinal Beaton, Archbishop of St. Andrews, who exerted himself to check the designs of the King of England. But the

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English influence was more powerful for the time; and, in accordance with the advice of Henry VIII., King James V., then twelve years of age, assumed the government of Scotland in his own name, by the act called *The Erection of the King*, August, 1524.

Erection of the King.

The defeat and capture of King Francis I. of France by the Germans and Spaniards in the battle of Pavia, in 1525, aroused great sympathy for him in Scotland and again turned the current of popular feeling in that country in favor of France.

Scottish Sympathy for France.

In 1526 King James V., then fourteen years of age, chose the Earls of Angus, Argyle and Errol as his guardians. The Earl of Angus was the first to enter upon his duties; but when his term expired he refused to resign the custody of the boy king's person, holding him in his power for two years and tyrannizing over him in such a manner as to acquire the youthful monarch's cordial hatred.

Guardianship of the Earls of Angus and Argyle.

In 1528 James V. escaped by night from Falkland and rode to Stirling Castle, disguised as a groom. He immediately set to work to crush the Douglases, and was so successful that the Earl of Angus was obliged to seek refuge in England. That powerful Scottish nobleman's possessions were confiscated, and his branch of the great Douglas family was thoroughly ruined.

Overthrow of the Douglases.

King James V. next directed his attention to the borderers, who had become as lawless as the Highlanders. He chastised them severely, and hanged their most prominent leader, John Armstrong, as a common thief.

Borderers Chastised.

It was the steady policy of James V. to break the power of the Scottish nobles and to increase the authority of the Scottish crown. He made important reforms in the administration of justice, and in every way he protected and befriended his humblest subjects against the violence and extortion of the nobles. In this way he obtained their enthusiastic devotion and acquired the title of "King of the Commons."

Increase of Royal Power.

Reforms.

James V. was a faithful Roman Catholic; but the Reformation made great progress in Scotland during his reign, in spite of the cruel persecution inaugurated by Cardinal Beaton, the Primate of Scotland.

Reformation in Scotland.

In 1542 Scotland became involved in a war with England, and a Scottish army of ten thousand men was sent to invade that kingdom; but this army was surprised and shamefully routed by five hundred English at Solway Moss, December 6, 1542, as already noticed in the history of England. King James V. received the news at Caerlaverock Castle, and at the same time he was informed that a daughter was born to him. This daughter was the celebrated and unfortunate Mary, Queen of Scots. The failure of a male heir and the shameful defeat of his army were more than the poor king could endure; and he died

War with England.

Battle of Solway Moss.

Death of James V.

Mary A. D. 1542–1567.

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of grief and disappointment eight days later, December 14, 1542, leaving the crown of Scotland to his infant daughter, MARY.

James Hamilton and Mary of Guise.

James Hamilton, Earl of Arran, was chosen regent for the infant Queen Mary, who was left in the care of her mother, Mary of Guise, the second wife of James V. Mary of Guise belonged to the powerful French family of Lorraine having that name.

Scheme of Henry VIII. of England.

All Scotland was disheartened by the catastrophe at Solway Moss, and Henry VIII. of England took advantage of this despondency to force the Scots to consent to a treaty providing for the marriage of the infant Queen Mary with his own son Edward, Prince of Wales, afterward King Edward VI. of England. In this way Henry VIII. hoped to unite the crowns of Scotland and England.

War with England.

When the Scots had recovered from their depression their Parliament repudiated the treaty forced upon them by the English monarch, whereupon Henry VIII. declared war against Scotland, May 1, 1544. An

English Invasions of Scotland.

English army under the Earl of Hertford then made a savage raid into Scotland, and sacked and burned Leith and Edinburgh, but was defeated and driven out of Scotland. The next year the Earl of Hertford renewed his invasion and ravaged the southern part of Scotland with dreadful cruelty, burning between two and three hundred villages and a number of towns, churches and manors; but the English effected no permanent conquest of the country, and the Earl of Hertford returned to England.

Battle of Pinkie.

In 1547 the Earl of Hertford, then Duke of Somerset and Protector of England during the minority of King Edward VI., invaded Scotland a third time, and defeated the Scots at Pinkie with the loss of ten thousand men, September 10, 1547. The Duke of Somerset then returned to England with the greater part of his army; but, as the English held possession of the southern fortresses of Scotland, the regent of Scotland sent little Queen Mary to France to be there educated and betrothed to the Dauphin, thus rendering her marriage with

Infant Queen Mary Betrothed to the Dauphin of France.

Edward VI. of England forever impossible. By extraordinary exertions and with the aid of six thousand French troops, the regent of Scotland drove the English back into their own country; and peace was made between Scotland and England in 1550, thus ending the last national war between the two British kingdoms.

Progress of the Reformation in Scotland.

In the meantime the Reformation was making rapid progress in Scotland. The Scots were highly exasperated by the persecutions with which the Roman Catholic clergy, under the leadership of Cardinal Beaton, the Primate of Scotland, sought to check the advance of Protestantism; and the only effect of the persecutions was to make numerous converts to the Reformed doctrines. A large party in Scotland applauded the course of King Henry VIII. of England in sup-

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pressing the monasteries and nunneries in his kingdom, and advocated the adoption of similar proceedings in their own country.

Murder of Cardinal Beaton.

In 1545 George Wishart was burned to death for preaching the doctrines of the Reformation. Sixteen of his disciples were admitted into the Castle of St. Andrews, Cardinal Beaton's stronghold, and murdered the Primate in revenge for the martyrdom of their teacher. They held possession of the castle for fourteen months against all the efforts of the regent to retake it, but were finally forced to submit and were sent to the French galleys. Among the number was John Knox, who afterward became so famous as the great Apostle of Calvinism in Scotland. The regent appointed his own brother, John Hamilton, to the office of Archbishop of St. Andrews to succeed the murdered Cardinal Beaton.

Punishment of the Reformers.

Regency of Mary of Guise.

The Earl of Arran was created Duke of Chatelherault by King Henry II. of France in 1554, whereupon he resigned the regency of Scotland and went to France. Mary of Guise, the mother of the girl queen Mary, then became regent; and in 1558 she secured the marriage of her daughter with the Dauphin Francis, the heir to the French crown. The next year, upon the death of his father, King Henry II., the Dauphin became King of France with the title of Francis II.; so that the crowns of France and Scotland were now united by marriage. The result was that the French influence became predominant in Scotland, the queen-regent appointing Frenchmen to many of the offices in the kingdom and putting them in charge of the Scottish fortresses. By their airs of superiority these French officials soon became cordially detested by the Scots, who were impatient to have them out of the country.

Marriage Union of the Crowns of Scotland and France.

Result.

Scottish Sympathy for English Religious Exiles in Scotland.

The Reformation had advanced rapidly in Scotland since the death of James V. The cruel persecutions of the Protestants in England by Bloody Queen Mary caused many of them to seek refuge in Scotland. These English religious exiles were kindly welcomed by the Scots, who displayed an ardent sympathy for them in their sufferings, and who abhorred the Church that had been the cause of so much misery. The growing zeal of the Scots for the Reformation overcame their recent national antipathy toward the English, and Bloody Queen Mary's cruelties struck a death-blow to Romanism in Scotland as well as in her own kingdom.

Calvinism in Scotland.

The Reformation took a different form in Scotland from what it had taken in England; and, instead of taking the Episcopal Church of England as their model, the Scottist Protestants followed the standard of the Huguenots of France by adopting Calvinism as their religion. The Catholic clergy in Scotland, like their brethren in other countries, had lost their influence over the common people by their immoral lives

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The Catholic Clergy and the Scottish Reformers.

and their irreligion, and had disguested the Scottish nation by their rapacity and their gross abuse of their spiritual authority. Many of the Scottish nobles sympathized with the Reformers, and many others sided with them because they hoped to obtain some of the fertile and well-cultivated lands of the Roman Church in Scotland in the event of its overthrow.

The First Covenanters.

Calvinism was growing silently but rapidly in Scotland, and the Reformers soon became a formidable party. By a bond, called the *First Covenant*, signed in 1557, the leaders of the Scottish Reformation bound themselves together under the title of the *Congregation;* by which they agreed to stand by each other in procuring the overthrow of the Roman religion in Scotland and to exert themselves to their utmost to spread the Calvinistic faith and worship in their country, also renouncing the Pope's authority in Scotland and enjoining their followers to use the English Bible and the English Book of Common Prayer. The nobles who signed the First Covenant were called the *Lords of the Congregation.*

Lords of the Congregation.

Mary of Guise and the Lords of the Congregation.

In 1558 Walter Mill, an aged priest of pure life, was burned to death as a heretic at St. Andrews. This cruel act aroused a storm of indignation in Scotland, and the Lords of the Congregation demanded of the regent a reformation of religion according to the principles enunciated in the First Covenant. The queen-regent, Mary of Guise, who was a sister of Francis, Duke of Guise, the deadly enemy of the Huguenots of France, answered the demand of the Lords of the Congregation by summoning some of the Calvinistic preachers to appear before the Privy Council. They prepared to obey her summons, and a strong body of their followers assembled at Perth to accompany and protect them.

Outlawry of Calvinist Preachers.

Alarmed by this exhibition of strength, the queen-regent entreated the Protestants to disperse and promised to withdraw her summons. But, instead of fulfilling her promise, she outlawed the Calvinistic preachers for not appearing before the council. Enraged at this breach of faith, the Scottish Reformers attacked and sacked the churches and monasteries in Pérth, May 11, 1559; and similar outbreaks occurred in other towns of Scotland.

Calvinist Outbreaks.

The Scottish Reformers and the French Troops.

The Lords of the Congregation assembled their followers at Perth and made ready for an appeal to arms. The queen-regent took the field against them at the head of a body of French troops, but a struggle was avoided by negotiation. It was agreed that all the questions at issue between the queen-regent and the Reformers should be adjusted by the Scottish Parliament, that both parties should disarm in the meantime and that the French garrison should be withdrawn from Perth.

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Rise of the Scottish Reformers against Mary of Guise.

With the duplicity characteristic of the Guises, the queen-regent withdrew the French troops from Perth, but instantly occupied the town with a garrison of Scottish troops hired with French money. The Lords of the Congregation at once flew to arms and occupied Edinburgh and St. Andrews, declared Mary of Guise deposed from the regency, but proclaimed themselves loyal to Francis II. and Mary, the King and Queen of France and Scotland. Not being strong enough to maintain their position without help, the Lords of the Congregation appealed to Queen Elizabeth of England for aid.

The Scottish Reformers Aided by Queen Elizabeth of England.

In answer to the appeal of the Lords of the Congregation, Queen Elizabeth concluded the Treaty of Berwick with them in 1560, by which she agreed to assist them with English troops against the French troops who were sent to aid Mary of Guise in maintaining her authority as queen-regent. An English contingent was promptly sent to the assistance of the Scottish Reformers, and several encounters occurred between the Anglo-Scottish troops and the queen-regent's French auxiliaries. The French were besieged in Leith and were obliged to capitulate; and by the Treaty of Edinburgh, during the same year (1560), it was stipulated that the French troops should retire from Scotland and that in the future no foreigners should hold office in that kingdom without the consent of the Scottish Parliament. The Parliament agreed, on behalf of the King and Queen of France and Scotland, to acknowledge Elizabeth as the lawful Queen of England and to relinquish all pretensions to the English crown, A. D. 1560.

Treaty of Edinburgh.

Triumph of Calvinism in Scotland.

The queen-regent of Scotland died soon after the conclusion of the Treaty of Edinburgh. The Lords of the Congregation then convened the Scottish Parliament, which formally abjured the Pope's authority in Scotland, forbade the saying of mass or being present at it and declared the Geneva Confession of Faith the standard of the Church of Scotland, thus establishing the Calvinistic faith and worship as the state-religion. As there was still a strong Catholic party in Scotland, the Catholic religion could not be entirely suppressed by act of Parliment; but Catholicism gradually died out in that kingdom during a long course of future years.

Return of Queen Mary Stuart.

After the death of her husband, King Francis II. of France, in 1560, Queen Mary Stuart returned to her own native and hereditary Kingdom of Scotland, landing at Leith, August 19, 1561. She was joyfully received by all classes of her subjects, as the death of her royal French husband had freed them of their fear that Scotland would be virtually reduced to the condition of a province of France.

Upon her return to Scotland, Queen Mary was in her nineteenth year and in the bloom of her youth and beauty. She was highly accomplished and her manners were graceful and captivating. As

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Her French and Roman Catholic Predilections.

she had been educated in France she was a Scotswoman only in name and blood. She was French in everything else and was a stranger to her own kingdom and subjects. She was in no way fitted to rule so turbulent a nation as the Scots at so critical a period; and, as she was a zealous Roman Catholic, she was the natural antagonist of the great Protestant movement which had just triumphed in Scotland.

Queen Mary and the Scottish Reformers.

Queen Mary's first measures were calculated to reassure her subjects. She bestowed her confidence wholly on the leaders of the Scottish Reformation, seeing that they alone were capable of supporting her government, and she issued a proclamation enjoining all her subjects to conform to the Protestant religion. But for herself she adhered to the Catholic faith, and with difficulty she obtained permission to have mass celebrated in her private chapel. This greatly offended the Calvinistic preachers, who could not "be reconciled to a person polluted with so great an abomination." John Knox and the other Protestant leaders of Scotland undertook to remonstrate with the queen; and, as they found her firm in her religious views, they broke out into coarse and brutal insults even in her presence.

Hume's Remark about John Knox.

Says Hume: "The ringleader in these insults on the queen was John Knox, who possessed an uncontrolled authority in the Church, and even in the civil affairs of the nation, and who triumphed in the contumelious usage of his sovereign. His usual appellation of the queen was Jezebel; and though she endeavored, by the most gracious condescension, to win his favor, all her insinuations could make no impression on his obdurate heart. Mary, whose age, condition and education invited her to liberty and cheerfulness, was curbed in all amusements by the absurd severity of those Reformers; and she found every moment reason to regret her leaving that country from whose manners she had in her early youth received her first impressions."

The Protestant Preachers and the First Book of Discipline.

The Protestant preachers were as arbitrary as the deposed Roman clergy in their notions of ecclesiastical authority. They claimed that the confiscated Church lands belonged rightfully to them, and asserted their right to dictate to the Scottish nation in public as well as in private affairs. They framed a *First Book of Discipline* for the guidance of the Church, and required its adoption. The Scottish nobles finally refused to admit the claims of the Reformed preachers or to accept the First Book of Discipline as law. The confiscated Church lands had been generally distributed, and the Privy Council refused to interfere with the settlement. One-third of what was left was taken to pay the salaries of the clergy, and the remainder went to the crown under certain conditions.

The Catholics were still a strong party in the North of Scotland; and their leader, the Earl of Huntley, refused to obey the laws growing

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THE DEATH OF RIZZIO

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out of the new state-religion. He was attacked, defeated and killed by the royal forces in 1562. His son was beheaded at Aberdeen, and the power of the Gordons and of the Scottish Roman Catholics was broken.

Defeat and Death of the Earl of Huntley.

All parties in Scotland were anxious for the marriage of Queen Mary. Various matches were suggested to her; but she settled the matter by marrying her cousin, Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley, the son of the Earl of Lennox and Margaret Douglas, July 29, 1565. Darnley was created Earl of Ross and Duke of Albany. As he was a rigid Roman Catholic, this marriage was very distasteful to John Knox and the other Scottish Reformers. The Earl of Murray, Queen Mary's illegitimate half-brother, took up arms to oppose the marriage, and was joined in his revolt by some of the other Scottish nobles; but the malcontents were defeated and forced to seek refuge in England.

Queen Mary's Marriage with Lord Darnley.

Rebellion.

Queen Mary found Lord Darnley a weak and contemptible husband, and she soon became tired of him. She had her father's and grandfather's weakness for making favorites and their lack of discretion in the choice of such favorites. David Rizzio, the accomplished Italian musician whom she had made her private secretary, rendered himself obnoxious to the Scottish nobles by encouraging the queen in the severities with which she treated the banished Scottish lords. As these lords determined to get rid of the queen's Italian favorite, they won Darnley over to their side by exciting his jealousy of Rizzio, and the plot was quickly matured. The murder of the queen's Italian favorite by Darnley and his fellow-conspirators took place while he was at supper with her in Holyrood Palace, at Edinburgh, March 9, 1566.

Murder of David Rizzio.

Queen Mary inwardly resolved on revenge, though she dissembled her feelings, appearing reconciled to her husband and promising to pardon the banished Scottish lords. The next day they appeared before her, and she received the Earl of Murray with affection; but, as she was resolved to have more freedom, she fled with Darnley to Dunbar the next night. The Earl of Bothwell quickly assembled a force for her protection, and she was enabled to return to Edinburgh before the end of the month. She at once cited the assassins of Rizzio to appear and answer for their crime, and when they failed to do so they were outlawed. She gave birth to a son in Edinburgh Castle, June 19, 1566.

Queen Mary and Rizzio's Assassins.

Queen Mary's new favorite, James Hepburn, Earl of Bothwell, who had rendered her such good service by his prompt aid to her at Dunbar, was created Lord High Admiral of Scotland and Warden of the Borders, and received the estates of Melrose and Haddington. The queen hated her husband for his share in the assassination of Rizzio, while the Scottish nobles also hated him because he had deserted them after that murder. When he was attacked with small-pox he was re-

Mary and the Earl of Bothwell.

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Murder of Lord Darnley.

moved to the house called the Kirk-o'Field, in the suburbs of Edinburgh. The blowing up of this house by gunpowder, by which Darnley perished, on the night of February 10, 1567, was believed to have been perpetrated by the Earl of Bothwell, while Queen Mary was believed to have been accessory to the crime.

Mary's Marriage with the Earl of Bothwell.

The queen gave color to this suspicion by her failure to make any effort to discover the murderers, and by permitting the Earl of Bothwell to browbeat Darnley's father and to intimidate him in his efforts to bring the suspected persons to justice; and, worse than all, she confirmed the suspicions against her by her marriage with the Earl of Bothwell, three months after Darnley's murder, May 15, 1567, the earl having obtained a divorce from his other wife in order to marry the queen.

Her Overthrow, Imprisonment and Abdication.

The Scottish nobles, deeply resenting the queen's criminal conduct, rose in arms against her, and forced her to surrender to them, June 15, 1567. The Earl of Bothwell escaped from the country, and as he became a pirate he was thrown into prison in Denmark, where he became insane, and died ten years later, A. D. 1577. Queen Mary was carried a prisoner to Edinburgh, where she was received by the people with the most insulting demonstrations. Soon afterward she was sent to Lochlevin Castle; and a few days later a number of letters which she was said to have written to the Earl of Bothwell were produced, implicating her in the murder of her second husband. Thereupon the rebellious Scottish nobles compelled Mary to sign an abdication of her crown in favor of her infant son, JAMES VI., A. D. 1567.

James VI., A. D. 1567-1625.

Regency of the Earl of Murray.

James VI. was crowned and anointed King of Scotland at Stirling. His sponsor, the Earl of Morton, took an oath in his behalf to maintain the Calvinistic State Church of Scotland and to root out its enemies. The deposed queen's half-brother, the Earl of Murray, was recalled from France, where he had been ever since the murder of Darnley, and was made regent for his infant nephew, at the dethroned queen's request.

Mary's Escape and Civil War.

A large party of the Scottish nobility, under the leadership of the Hamiltons, refused to acknowledge the authority of the new government and opened negotiations with the captive ex-queen. Several months afterward Mary escaped from Lochlevin Castle and fled to Hamilton, where she was welcomed with enthusiasm by the dissatisfied Scottish nobles, who recognized her as their legitimate sovereign, A. D. 1568. She at once sent a demand to her half-brother, the Earl of Murray, that he should resign the regency and submit to her as his queen. The regent replied to her demand by raising an army to uphold the authority of the infant King James VI.

Mary's Defeat and Flight to England.

After her decisive defeat by her half-brother at Langside, May 13, 1568, Mary rode with all haste to the border and sought refuge in

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England, where she threw herself upon the generosity of Queen Elizabeth, by whom she was detained a prisoner. The account of Mary's nineteen years' captivity in England, the Catholic plots for her release and her elevation to the English throne, and her final execution, have all been related in the history of England and need not be repeated here. **Her Captivity.**

Mary Stuart's captivity in England did not destroy her party in Scotland. Her principal supporters were the Hamiltons and the Earl of Huntley. The Duke of Chatelherault, one of the Hamiltons, was the next heir to the Scottish crown after Mary in case King James VI. should die before her. The fallen queen's party hated the Earl of Murray, and the Hamiltons determined upon his death. As he was riding from Stirling to Edinburgh, he was shot and killed at Bothwelhaugh, by James Hamilton, of that town, February 23, 1570. His death was a misfortune for Scotland, as he had ruled the kingdom firmly and well. The Scottish people gratefully remember him as the "Good Regent." **The Hamiltons and the Earl of Huntley.** **Murder of the Earl of Murray.**

The murder of the Earl of Murray was followed by a period of anarchy. A border war with England also broke out, and the southern counties of Scotland were ravaged as far as the Clyde. At length the Earl of Lennox, the boy king's paternal grandfather, was chosen regent; but his selection was opposed by a considerable part of the Scottish people, as he was considered too much of an Englishman to be mindful of the real welfare of Scotland. Grange, who had been assigned to the charge of Edinburgh Castle, declared for the ex-queen, whose partisans likewise held possession of Dumbarton Castle, the strongest fortress in Scotland. Crawford of Jordanhill, an officer of the regent, with a handful of men, surprised and took Dumbarton Castle, April 2, 1571. In September, 1571, the regent summoned the Scottish Parliament to meet at Stirling, where the youthful King James VI. was residing. Four hundred of Mary's troops from Edinburgh Castle made a dash into Stirling and took the regent prisoner, September 4, 1571. He was instantly rescued, but was mortally wounded in the struggle and died several hours afterward. **Anarchy and Border War.** **Regency of the Earl of Lennox.** **Civil War.** **Capture and Death of the Earl of Lennox.**

The Earl of Mar, Governor of Stirling, succeeded as regent of Scotland. He failed in an effort to take Edinburgh Castle, after which a two months' truce was agreed upon, August 1, 1572. Much blood had been shed in Scotland during this civil war, without any decisive result for either party. During the truce the ex-queen's party received a severe blow in the general horror produced in Scotland by the intelligence of the Massacre of St. Bartholomew, in France. **Regency of the Earl of Mar.** **Truce.**

The Earl of Mar died in November, 1572; and the Earl of Morton became regent, November 24, 1572—the very day on which John

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Regency of the Earl of Morton.

Knox, the great leader of the Reformation in Scotland, died. Knox was a great man, notwithstanding his faults; his most conspicuous characteristics being his fearlessness in speaking what he believed to be the truth. The civil war in Scotland was renewed at the opening of the year 1573. In August of that year Edinburgh Castle surrendered to the regent, who tarnished his triumph by hanging Grange, its gallant defender. The power of the Earl of Morton was vastly strengthened by this success, but he aroused the animosity of some of the most powerful nobles of Scotland by compelling them to restore the crown property which they had seized. The youthful king, under the influence of his favorite, Esmé Stuart, Lord of Aubigny, the nephew of the late regent, the Earl of Lennox, also turned against the Earl of Morton. At length James Stuart of Ochiltree, another favorite of the king, accused the Earl of Morton before the council of having been an accomplice in the murder of Lord Darnley; and upon this charge the regent was tried, condemned and beheaded at Edinburgh.

Civil War Renewed.

Execution of the Earl of Morton.

James VI. and His Stuart Favorites.

Young King James VI. then took the government of Scotland into his own hands; but he was wholly under the influence of his favorites—James Stuart of Ochiltree, whom he created Earl of Arran, and Esmé Stuart, Lord of Aubigny, whom he made Duke of Lennox and Governor of Dumbarton Castle. The royal favor enjoyed by these two Stuarts excited the jealousy of the older Scottish nobles, who, under the leadership of the Earl of Gowrie, seized the boy king and held him a prisoner in Ruthven Castle. They forced him to banish the Duke of Lennox from the kingdom and administered the government in his name. They also compelled him to declare that in these proceedings he acted of his own free will and without restraint or compulsion.

His Imprisonment by Revolted Nobles.

His Escape and Execution of the Earl of Gowrie.

Young King James VI. remained in the power of the Ruthven lords almost a year, until he escaped to St. Andrews, where his partisans rallied to his support in such numbers that the Ruthven lords were obliged to yield. The youthful king at first acted with moderation; but at length the Earl of Arran, who had returned to power, caused the Earl of Gowrie to be arrested, tried and executed on a charge of plotting against the young king.

Overthrow of the Earl of Arran.

Alliance with England.

Some time afterward the Earl of Arran himself was accused of inciting an affray on the border in which Lord Russell, an Englishman, was killed, and was ordered to retire from court. The Scottish nobles who were jealous of the Earl of Arran then appeared at Stirling, where the youthful king was residing, with a body of eight thousand troops, and forced James VI. to summon a Parliament, which restored to the Earl of Gowrie's children the lands and honors forfeited by his treason, deprived the Earl of Arran of all his possessions and dignities, and entered into an alliance with England, A. D. 1585.

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Execution of Queen Mary in England.

As we have related in the history of England, Mary Stuart, the captive ex-Queen of Scotland, was beheaded at Fotheringay Castle, in England, February 8, 1587, by order of Queen Elizabeth. King James VI. made a slight display of grief and resentment at his mother's execution, but allowed it to pass without further notice. In 1589 he married Anne, daughter of King Frederick II. of Denmark, and the new queen received the Orkney and Shetland Isles as her dowry.

Marriage of James VI.

Scotland Alarmed about the Spanish Armada.

Scotland was greatly alarmed by the sailing of the Spanish Armada for the invasion of England in 1588, and took measures to prevent the reëstablishment of Roman Catholicism within its borders in case of the Spanish conquest of England. The Scottish nobles and gentry signed the *Second Covenant*.

Presbyterian Church Government in Scotland.

Scotland did not for several years recover from the excitement caused by the Spanish Armada, and in 1592 the Scottish Parliament passed an act abolishing Episcopacy in Scotland and substituting the Presbyterian form of Church government instead. The Scottish Church was thenceforth to be under the control of presbyters and synods, under the authority of a general assembly consisting of clergymen and lay elders from the several presbyteries. This general assembly was to meet once a year at Edinburgh under the presidency of the king or his commissioner.

Catholic Plot and Civil War.

In the same year a plot of the Catholic nobles of Scotland was detected. The conspirators intended to invite King Philip II. of Spain to reëstablish the Roman Catholic religion in Scotland, and promised to aid him with all their resources. The Marquis of Argyle was ordered in the name of King James VI. to begin a civil war against the Earl of Huntley, one of the leaders of the Catholic conspiracy. In 1597, after a civil war of two years, the Earls of Huntley and Errol, the two most prominent leaders of the Catholic plot, made their peace with the king by publicly abjuring Roman Catholicism and embracing Presbyterianism.

Catholic Submission.

James VI. and the Presbyterian Preachers.

King James VI. had considerable trouble with the Presbyterian preachers, who arrogantly claimed the right to dictate even to the king. This contest caused a stubborn riot at Edinburgh, compelling the king to flee to Linlithgow. Thereupon he threatened to remove the courts of justice from Edinburgh, thus bringing the people of that city to their senses. They yielded, and the king returned to the capital, while the Presbyterian preachers who has caused the trouble fled into England.

James VI. Becomes James I. of England.

Upon the death of Queen Elizabeth of England, March 24, 1603, King James VI. of Scotland was declared her successor on the English throne. James VI. at once set out for his new kingdom, and made his formal entry into London, May 6, 1603; and for the remaining twenty-

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two years of his life he was King of both Scotland and England, residing in his new kingdom during that period under the title of James I., and being represented in Scotland by a Lord High Commissioner. Thenceforth the crowns of Scotland and England were united, though each kingdom had its own Parliament and was independent of the other in everything else until 1707.

Union of Crowns.

The union of the crowns of Scotland and England ended the savage warfare that had desolated the border for centuries. The border laws of both kingdoms were repealed, and it was agreed that all subjects of either kingdom born after the union should be citizens of the other also and have the right to inherit and hold property in the other. Scotland thus gave a king to England, instead of receiving one from that kingdom. James VI. was freed from his dependence upon the turbulent Scottish lords and was enabled to govern them with a stronger hand, as he could bring the resources of rich and powerful England to his aid in maintaining his authority in poor and weak Scotland.

End of Border Wars and Border Laws.

Common Citizenship.

SECTION XII.—PHILIP II. OF SPAIN (1556–1598), AND HOUSE OF AUSTRIA.

Philip II. of Spain, A. D. 1556–1598.

We have seen that upon the abdication of the Emperor Charles V., in 1555 and 1556, his son Philip II. succeeded him in the sovereignty of Spain, Naples, Sicily, Milan and the Netherlands; while his brother Ferdinand I., Archduke of Austria and King of Hungary and Bohemia, succeeded him on the German imperial throne; thus dividing the illustrious Hapsburg dynasty into a Spanish and an Austrian branch.

Emperor Ferdinand I., A. D. 1556–1564.

Ferdinand I. and Pope Paul IV.

The accession of the Emperor Ferdinand I. was welcomed by the German princes and recognized by every European sovereign except Pope Paul IV., who declared that he only could sanction the abdication of Emperors, as he alone had the power to crown and depose them. This Pope therefore ordered Ferdinand I. to resign the imperial scepter, do penance for his presumption and submissively await the pleasure of St. Peter's successor. Such pretensions, which Hildebrand and Innocent III. had been so able to enforce three and four centuries before, only excited ridicule in the greater part of Christendom when they fell from the lips of Paul IV.; and thenceforth the Emperors dispensed with the ceremony of being crowned by the Pope.

Philip II. and Pope Paul IV.

In pursuance of his unrelenting hostility toward the ex-Emperor Charles V. and of his son Philip II. of Spain and the Netherlands, Pope Paul IV. persuaded King Henry II. of France to break his

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solemn engagements with Charles V. in the Truce of Vaucelles in 1556. The Pope himself imprisoned the Spanish ambassador in Rome and even laid Spain under an interdict. Philip II., whose religious scruples were more intense than those of Paul IV., deeply felt the Pope's severity and wearied all his theologians for arguments to justify him in resisting the Pope; while Paul IV. was even forming an alliance with Sultan Solyman the Magnificent.

Spanish and French Armies in the Campagna.

At length the Spanish army under the Duke of Alva overran the Campagna and approached the gates of Rome; and, though reverence forbade him to enter that holy city in arms, no scruple of humanity restrained him from massacring the innocent inhabitants of the captured villages. During the next winter a large French army under Francis, Duke of Guise, entered Italy to oppose the Spanish force under the Duke of Alva. The Duke of Guise marched to Rome; and, in the interest of his brother, the Cardinal of Lorraine, he persuaded Pope Paul IV. to create ten new cardinals.

Their Indecisive Operations.

The French and Spanish armies advanced and retreated, marched and countermarched, to the great discomfort of the poor people whose fields were wasted and whose homes were desecrated by the brutal soldiery, with no decisive result for either the French or Spanish king. At length the Duke of Guise was recalled to France to defend that kingdom against Spanish invasion from the Netherlands; and Pope Paul IV. dismissed him with the following benediction: "Begone, then! you have done little for your king, less for your Church, nothing for your own honor!"

Peace between Philip II. and the Pope.

Peace was now necessary to the Pope, and the King of Spain was glad to desist from what he believed to be an impious warfare. The Duke of Alva, in his own name and in the name of Philip II., did penance for the crime of invading the Pope's dominions, and received absolution therefor from Paul IV. The territories belonging to Florence and Siena were united to form the Grand-duchy of Tuscany, which was ultimately bestowed upon the Medici, and remained in the possession of that illustrious Florentine family until its extinction in 1737.

English Aid to Philip II.

Philip II. mustered an army of fifty thousand men in the Netherlands, among whom were ten thousand English troops which his wife, Queen Mary of England, had sent him in spite of the opposition of her Parliament and the murmurs of her subjects. With these forces, the Duke of Savoy defeated the French in the battle of St. Quentin, almost annihilating their army. After Philip II. had joined the Duke of Savoy, the victorious Spaniards besieged St. Quentin for three weeks, and finally took the town after a gallant defense by the little French garrison under Admiral Coligni.

Battle of St. Quentin.

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Operations in the Netherlands.

Ham. Noyon and Chauni were also taken by the Spaniards, but in the meantime the tide of victory had turned in favor of the French. The English allies of the Spaniards, never cordial, insisted on going home; while the German auxiliaries mutinied for want of pay. While the ex-Emperor Charles V., in his retirement at San Yuste, in the West of Spain, was calculating that his son must be in Paris, Philip II. had actually retired to Brussels, disbanded a portion of his army and sent the remainder into winter-quarters.

French Recovery of Calais from the English.

It was in this emergency that the Duke of Guise returned from Italy and was invested by the King of France with extraordinary powers. After making a feigned movement toward Luxemburg, he suddenly appeared before Calais with his entire army. This last English stronghold in France was negligently guarded, as the English believed that the overflow of the surrounding marshes in winter constituted an effectual defense. The French took the two forts in the first day's attack, and carried the town itself by assault after three bombardments, January 8, 1558. The capture of Guines followed two weeks later, and thus the English lost their last foothold in France after two centuries' possession. The universal discontent in England on account of this unnecessary war was heightened into indignation at this unexpected loss, and Queen Mary's death was hastened by remorse and disappointment.

Indignation in England.

Peace of Cateau-Cambresis.

The Guises ruled France during the captivity of the Constable Montmorenci, who had been taken prisoner by the Spaniards at St. Quentin. They now permitted the captive Constable to open negotiations with his Spanish captors; and two treaties were signed at Cateau-Cambresis, one between France and Spain, and the other between France, England and Scotland, April, 1559.

Its Terms.

By the Peace of Cateau-Cambresis both Spain and France restored the conquests which their respective armies had made during the war; but France retained the bishoprics of Metz, Toul and Verdun, which King Henry II. had wrested from Germany during his alliance with the Protestant German princes in their war with the Emperor Charles V. As Queen Mary of England, the wife of Philip II. of Spain, had died during the conferences for peace, the Spanish king engaged to marry Elizabeth, the eldest daughter of King Henry II. of France; while the Duke of Savoy, who was reinstated in his paternal inheritance, espoused the French king's sister Margaret.

Europe's Two Religious Parties.

The Peace of Cateau-Cambresis, in April, 1559, derives its chief importance from the fact that it marked a new division of the European powers, when national jealousies gave place to religious animosity. The Kings of Spain and France ended their long contest, so that both might be free to exterminate Protestantism in their respective do-

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minions; while England, under Queen Elizabeth, assumed her place at the head of the Protestant states and became the protectress of religious freedom in all European nations. Spain became the champion of Roman Catholicism, and every European sovereign who wished to coerce the consciences of his subjects looked to Philip II. for aid. Spain was undoubtedly the greatest power in Europe during this period, in consequence of her invincible infantry and her reputed wealth, drawn from her vast American possessions; but unwise and unjust restrictions on commerce had already cast a blight on her prosperity, and her decline had already commenced, though it was as yet unnoticed.

Elizabeth and Philip II.

Spain's Leadership.

Pope Paul IV., the old enemy of Philip II. and the Emperor Ferdinand I., surprised the world by his sudden plans for reform during the last year of his life. He dismissed his nephews, who had made his court scandalous by their robberies, murders and midnight riots. He also introduced order and economy into his finances; and, to protect his Ministers from injustice, he caused a chest to be put in a public place, with an opening into which every man might cast his petitions or complaints, the Pope having the only key to the chest. But the Pope's reforms were almost harder to endure than his former extravagance; as his zeal took the direction of persecution, and he passed his last days in listening to the stories of the basest informers and in ordering arrests. Upon the death of Paul IV., in August, 1559, the Roman people immediately broke open the prisons and released the captives, threw down his statue and cast its head with its triple crown into the Tiber.

Reforms of Pope Paul IV.

His Persecutions.

Gian Angelo Medecino, who was then elected Pope by the conclave of cardinals and assumed the title of Pius IV., was an active old man, affable in manners and amiable in temper, himself no persecutor, but permitting the Inquisitors to proceed without molestation in their horrible task. His only near relative, his nephew, Charles Borromeo, was a clear and striking contrast to the nephews of other Popes who made *nepotism* notorious. After being appointed Archbishop of Milan, Charles Borromeo distinguished himself by the self-denying purity of his life, his frequent and laborious visits to the humblest and remotest mountain recesses of his diocese, and his ministrations to the poor during a frightful visitation of the plague. Pope Pius IV., unlike his predecessor, Paul IV., was a friend of both the Austrian and Spanish Hapsburgs; and he therefore recognized Ferdinand I. as Emperor, and consented to reconvene the Council of Trent in 1562.

Pope Pius IV.

His Nepotism.

His Friendship for Philip II. and Ferdinand I.

As we have seen, the Council of Trent closed its last session December 4, 1563; after having excluded half of Christendom from the communion of the Church, and adopted reformatory measures which gave

Council of Trent.

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new vigor to the Roman Catholic Church and apparently checked the Protestant movement.

Maximilian II., A. D. 1564–1576.

[illegible] of Spain, died in July, 1564, after having reigned over the Germano-Roman Empire but eight years. His son, MAXIMILIAN II., had already been crowned King of Germany, as well of Hungary and Bohemia; and after his father's death he succeeded peaceably to the imperial crown. The new Emperor's justice and liberality long delayed the great war of religion which in the next century deluged Germany with blood for thirty years.

Pope Pius V.

Pope Pius IV. died in 1565; and the Grand Inquisitor Ghislieri, who was then elected Pope by the conclave of cardinals, assumed the title of Pius V. The new Pope's austere piety and unyielding will well qualified him to continue the reformation of the Roman Catholic Church. Being convinced of his own rectitude, he was just as sure that all who differed with him were guilty of the most unpardonable sin. He caused new prisons to be built to confine his multitudes of victims, and the fires of the Inquisition or the executioner's ax sent martyrs to their doom daily. He sent troops and money into France, with orders for the instant death of all heretics who could be taken. In 1570 he excommunicated Queen Elizabeth of England and absolved her subjects from their allegiance to her.

His Persecutions.

The Reformation in Spain.

In the meantime Philip II. had been recalled into Spain by the progress of the Reformation in that kingdom. The middle and higher classes of Spaniards had Bibles in the Castilian dialect of the Spanish language, and the Lutheran doctrines had been introduced into the country in consequence of the constant intercourse with Germany during the reign of Charles V., when Spain and Germany had the same sovereign.

The Inquisition and the Auto da fe.

Philip II., who was of a gloomy and misanthropic disposition, stern, haughty and cruel, and moreover a most bigoted Roman Catholic, was greatly alarmed by these signs of heresy in Spain; and he at once proceeded to exterminate the evil by the fires of the Inquisition, which had formerly been lit only for Jews and Moors. The burning of Protestants, called the *auto de fe*, "act of faith," became a common occurrence. Philip II. was successful in completely suppressing the spirit of inquiry and free thought in Spain, and banishing the Bible and the Protestant doctrines from his kingdom, by a most cruel persecution. But his measures struck a death-blow to the prosperity of Spain, and threw that country back into the barbarism from which it has not yet fully emerged, as is proven by the fact that Spain had more printing-presses in the middle of the sixteenth century than in the middle of the nineteenth.

Protestantism Stamped Out in Spain.

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Revolt of the Netherlands.

The attempt of Philip II. to introduce the Inquisition into the Netherlands led to his loss of those fair provinces, which succeeded in establishing their independence after a bloody struggle of forty years, when the Dutch Republic became one of the independent powers of Europe. The account of this interesting struggle, which was one of the most important events of modern times, will be given in full in a separate section.

Philip's Edict against the Moors of Spain.

Philip II. also revived his father's cruelties against the Moriscoes, or nominally Christian Moors of Spain, who still occupied the region of the Alpujarras. Though they were nominally Christians, they secretly maintained their old Mohammedan faith. In 1556 Philip II. issued an edict forbidding them to use their native language, to bestow Moorish names on their offspring or to indulge in any of their most innocent national customs, and requiring them to send all their children between the ages of three and fifteen to Spanish schools.

Their Bloody Revolt.

Driven to desperation in 1568, the Moriscoes sprang to arms, massacred the Christian inhabitants of that region with the most barbarous cruelty, besought aid from the Turkish Sultan and from their Moorish brethren in Africa, and chose a descendant of the Ommíyad Khalifs of Cordova for their sovereign. After a furious struggle of three years, marked with all the violence of vengeance on the one side and desperation on the other, the revolt was crushed in 1571. The fugitive Moriscoes were hunted among their mountains like wild beasts, and their spirit was broken by a series of inhuman massacres, until the last symptoms of revolt were extinguished. The Moriscoes were almost exterminated in the struggle which the bigoted Spanish king's tyrannical measures had provoked.

Its Bloody Suppression.

Fruitless Siege of Malta by Sultan Solyman the Magnificent.

In the meantime the Turks under Sultan Solyman the Magnificent were renewing their aggressions upon the nations of Christendom. In 1565 Solyman besieged the island of Malta, which had belonged to the Knights of St. John ever since Solyman had wrested Rhodes from them in 1522. The defense of Malta by the Knights of St. John in 1565 was one of the most valiant operations recorded in history. The Turks took the fort of St. Elmo; but that of St. Michael, under the command of the Grand Master La Valette, held out until Sultan Solyman the Magnificent, exhausted by a series of desperate assaults, relinquished the enterprise and sailed away to Constantinople in a rage. All the sovereigns of Christendom vied with each other in bestowing praises and gifts upon the Grand Master; and Valetta, the new capital of Malta, has borne his name ever since.

The next year, 1566, Sultan Solyman the Magnificent captured the far more valuable Greek island of Chios, the ancient Scio. The same year he renewed his invasion of Hungary, under pretense of supporting

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His New Invasion of Hungary and His Death.

the claims of John Sigismund, son of John Zapolya, against the Emperor Maximilian II. Solyman died while besieging the fortress of Szigeth, September, 1566; but his troops took the fortress after a siege rendered memorable by the heroic death of the Hungarian commandant, who, when the fortress was no longer tenable, rushed into the ranks of the Janizaries with six hundred followers and fell pierced with bullets and arrows. The victorious Turks forced their way into the citadel and demanded of a page where his master's treasures were concealed. The young Hungarian replied: "My master possessed one hundred thousand ducats and a thousand golden cups, that are all destroyed; but he leaves you treasures of powder which will instantly burst beneath your feet." No sooner were these words uttered than the magazine exploded and five thousand Turks perished.

Siege and Capture of Szigeth by the Turks.

Sultan Selim II., A. D. 1566–1574.

Solyman's two elder sons had been put to death through the intrigues of his Russian wife, Roxolana, who thus prepared the way for the accession of her own son, SELIM II. The new Sultan was weak and profligate, and only secured the allegiance of the Janizaries by largely increasing the donative, which they demanded at every change of Sultans, as did the Prætorian Guards of Rome at the change of Emperors.

Turkish Invasion of Cyprus.

After making a truce with the Emperor Maximilian II., Sultan Selim II. directed his attention to the conquest of the island of Cyprus, which had been a dependency of the Venetian Republic for eighty years; but Venetian power was now on the decline, while the severity of its rule caused the Cypriots to regard the Turks as deliverers. In the summer of 1570 a Turkish army of fifty thousand men landed in Cyprus, whereupon the Venetians retired into the towns of Nicosia and Famagusta. The Turks took Nicosia in about two months and captured Famagusta in August, 1571.

Holy League against the Turks.

Pope Pius V., who was always an ardent foe of the Moslem power, was now aroused to the most strenuous exertions; and he united with King Philip II. of Spain and the Republic of Venice in a *Holy League* against the Ottoman power. The Holy League soon had a fleet of three hundred vessels in the Mediterranean. The command of this allied Christian fleet was assigned to Don John of Austria, the half-brother of Philip II. of Spain and the most accomplished knight of his time.

Battle of Lepanto.

The Turkish fleet, which was larger than that of the Christian powers, had taken its position in the Gulf of Lepanto when the allied fleet appeared. The conflict which ensued, September 5, 1571, was one of the most memorable sea-fights of modern times. The Turks were thoroughly defeated with the loss of two hundred and twenty-four ships and thirty thousand men; and the fame of their invincible bravery and

Turkish Power Broken.

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fortune, which had attained its zenith during the brilliant career of Sultan Solyman the Magnificent, ceased to be a terror to the nations of Christendom.

Turkish Decline.

The Ottoman Empire began its decline from the day of the battle of Lepanto, in 1571. The triumphant Christians might have liberated Greece from the Ottoman yoke had they been more closely united and thus been enabled to follow up their great victory; but their forces were divided by rival interests, and the death of Pope Pius V. interrupted their operations for a time. In 1573 Venice made a separate peace with the Ottoman Porte, ceding Cyprus and even consenting to pay an annual tribute. Sultan Selim II. died in 1574, his reign being signalized by the beginning of that series of contests between Turkey and Russia for the possession of the Black Sea which has not yet been ended.

Christendom's Dissensions.

Pope Gregory XIII.

Pope Gregory XIII., who succeeded Pius V. in May, 1572, was the author of the *New Style* of the calendar. The calendar had fallen into confusion, and Gregory XIII. rectified it by passing at once from the 18th of February to the 1st of March. The New Style of the calendar was only adopted gradually by the nations of Europe; and was not adopted in Great Britain and her dominions until 1752, on account of feelings of prejudice toward the Head of the Roman Catholic Church.

His New Style Calendar.

Emperor Maximilian II. and His Religious Toleration.

The Emperor Maximilian II. was the first of the European sovereigns who recognized the duty of universal toleration. He relaxed all religious despotism in his hereditary dominions, Austria and Bohemia; though his policy was frustrated in some measure by his near connection with the Spanish branch of his dynasty, he having married Mary, a sister of King Philip II., whose fourth wife was a daughter of Maximilian II. The Empress Mary was a devoted adherent of the Jesuits, but the Emperor made an inflexible resistance to the arts of that famous order. By a treaty with John Sigismund of Hungary, Maximilian II. secured the whole of that kingdom, except Transylvania; but he died in 1576, at the age of forty-nine, and was succeeded as Emperor by his son Rudolf II., who had already become King of Germany, Hungary and Bohemia.

Emperor Rudolf II., A. D. 1576–1612.

King Sebastian of Portugal.

King Sebastian of Portugal, whose youthful mind had been instilled by Jesuits with romantic dreams of conquest over Moslems, led an expedition against the Moors of Africa in 1574, when he was twenty years of age; but little was accomplished in this first attempt. In 1578 King Sebastian led a second expedition into Africa to aid the fugitive Moorish king, Muley Mohammed, who had been driven from the throne of Morocco by his uncle; but Sebastian was defeated and killed in the battle of Alcazarquivir, August 4, 1578, and his army

His Defeat and Death by the Moors in Africa.

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was almost annihilated, most of the nobles and prelates of Portugal perishing.

Portugal under Henry and Dom Antonio.

Sebastian was succeeded on the throne of Portugal by his uncle, Cardinal HENRY of Braganza, who died in 1580, after a reign of only two years; whereupon several pretenders appeared to claim the Portuguese crown. DOM ANTONIO, Henry's brother, was crowned at Lisbon by the Portuguese party, in June, 1580.

Spanish Conquest of Portugal by the Duke of Alva.

The most powerful of the rival claimants for the vacant throne of Portugal was King Philip II. of Spain, who sent an army of twenty-four thousand Spanish and Italian veterans under the Duke of Alva into Portugal a few months after Henry's death; and Dom Antonio was defeated and wounded in the battle of Alcantara, and fled into France a few months later. The Duke of Alva set up a reign of terror in Portugal, similar to that which he had conducted in the Netherlands; but his victims in this instance were monks, not heretics. After the Duke of Alva had thus effected the conquest of Portugal, Philip II. entered the country to receive the homage of the Portuguese Estates, and devoted two years to arranging the affairs of the conquered kingdom. The union of Portugal with Spain lasted sixty years (A. D. 1580–1640).

Spain's Great Power and Dominions.

The other powers of Europe had been too much absorbed in their own affairs to interfere with the aggressions of Philip II. France and England suddenly became conscious of the growth of the Spanish dominion, not only in the Iberian peninsula, but also over Portugal's rich and undeveloped possessions in Brazil, Africa and Southern and Eastern Asia; while the Philippine Islands, in the Pacific Ocean, east of Asia, which derived their name from Philip II., had been settled in 1564 by a Spanish colony from Mexico.

French Defeat by the Spaniards in the Azores.

France sent two naval expeditions against the Azores, those islands having declared for Dom Antonio. The Azores were of the greatest importance as a refitting and watering station for vessels sailing to the East or West Indies. The French and Spanish fleets fought a fierce conflict for the possession of those islands, ending in the destruction of the French fleet and all the French prisoners being put to death as pirates; thus establishing the power of Philip II. firmly in the islands.

Pope Sixtus V.

Pope Gregory XIII. died in 1585 and was succeeded by Sixtus V., one of the greatest of the Popes and the most remarkable prince of the Church during the whole century of the Reformation. He had risen from the condition of a poor shepherd boy to be a Franciscan monk, then Inquisitor, then cardinal, and finally Pope. He was a man of strong and imperious nature and maintained the discipline of the Church with inexorable severity. He sought to restore to the

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Chair of St. Peter its former splendor, and fixed the number of cardinals at seventy, in memory of the elders who aided Moses with their counsels. He improved the water supply of Rome, adorned the city with new edifices, drew the gigantic works of antiquity from their rubbish, and exterminated the banditti who had infested the Papal States during the inefficient pontificate of his predecessor. He died in 1590.

His Able and Stern Rule.

Philip II. adorned Spain with splendid edifices, among which was the famous palace of the *Escurial*, the grandest monument of his reign. This magnificent palace was built in honor of St. Lawrence, to whom Philip II. ascribed his victory over the French at St. Quentin. St. Lawrence was martyred by being broiled on a gridiron, and the ground-plan of the Escurial was made in imitation of the bars and handle of this implement. This elegant palace contained the mausoleum of the Spanish kings.

Erection of the Escurial at Madrid.

The gloomy and misanthropic Philip II., shutting himself up in the Escurial, planned the extermination of Protestantism and the establishment of a powerful Roman Catholic empire in Western Europe under the supremacy of Spain; but the destruction of the Invincible Armada which he sent against England in 1588, and the gallant resistance of the Netherlanders to his tyranny, thwarted his schemes.

Ambitious Schemes of Philip II. Foiled.

Few events had transpired in Germany since the accession of the Emperor Rudolf II., in 1576. His Spanish education and the continued influence of the Jesuits induced him to expel all Lutherans from his hereditary dominions, Austria and Bohemia; and there was a strong Catholic reaction in Austria and Bavaria. The favorite studies of Rudolf II. were alchemy and astrology. His taste for astrology was of some service, as it led him to encourage the great astronomers, Kepler and Tycho Brahe, who were successively intrusted with the superintendence of his observatory at Prague.

Emperor Rudolf II and His Catholic Bigotry.

Kepler and Tycho Brahe.

A singular circumstance, which promised to extend Protestantism in Germany, actually strengthened the power of the Roman Catholic Church. The Archbishop-Elector of Cologne, desiring to marry the beautiful Agnes von Mansfeld, renounced his allegiance to the Roman Church and openly adopted Lutheranism. He intended to secularize his province, as the Grand Master of the Teutonic Knights had done; but Prince Ernest of Bavaria, his former competitor for the archbishopric, was elected his successor. The Protestant German princes held aloof, and the deposed Archbishop-Elector passed the remainder of his life in retirement at Strassburg. Thenceforth for almost two centuries the Archbishop-Electors of Cologne were members of the Electoral dynasty of Bavaria, the House of Wittelsbach.

Conversion of the Archbishop-Elector of Cologne and His Deposition.

The German and Ottoman Empires became involved in another war in 1593, commencing with the defeat of the Turkish governor of

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War between the German and Ottoman Empires.

Bosnia near Sissek, in June of that year. Sultan AMURATH III., who had succeeded Selim II. in 1574, immediately raised a large Turkish army, which captured Vesprim, but was afterward defeated by the Austrians. The next year, 1594, the principalities of Moldavia, Wallachia and Transylvania revolted from the Sultan and formed an alliance with the Emperor Rudolf II. Struck with dismay, Sultan Amurath III. sent to Damascus for the holy standard which was supposed to insure victory over the enemies of Islam; but Amurath III. died in January, 1595, without having experienced its miraculous help.

Sultan Amurath III., A. D. 1574–1595.

Sultan Mohammed III., A. D. 1595–1603.

Sultan MOHAMMED III., the son and successor of Amurath III., secured his throne with the usual Turkish barbarity by murdering his nineteen brothers. The campaign of 1595 was disastrous to the Turks, as the Austrian army under Count Mansfeld took the important town of Gran and received the submission of the towns of Wissegrad and Waitzen.

Battle of Keresztes.

The next year, 1596, Sultan Mohammed III. took the field in person, captured Erlau, in the North of Hungary, and defeated the Christians with a loss of fifty thousand men and one hundred cannon in a three days' battle at Keresztes. Vienna was seized with consternation, which spread throughout Europe; but as the Turks neglected to follow up their great victory they reaped no advantages therefrom.

Peace of Sitvatorok.

The war lasted ten years longer, and was ended by the Peace of Sitvatorok, January 1, 1607, which showed a great abatement in the pretensions of the Turks, whose power had begun to decline. The Sultan recognized the Emperor Rudolf II. with his full imperial titles instead of slightly alluding to him as "King of Vienna," and relieved him of the degrading annual tribute hitherto exacted by the Ottoman Porte, in consideration of a large immediate payment; while the frontiers of the two empires remained almost as they had been in 1597.

Death of Philip II. of Spain.

Philip II. of Spain died September 13, 1598, after a disastrous reign of forty-two years, which was the grave of Spain's greatness. No sovereign ever ascended a throne with more magnificent prospects. Had his wisdom and justice been equal to his diligence his vast inheritance would have made him by far the greatest monarch in Christendom. But he crushed Spain, ruined Portugal, lost the Northern Netherlands and drained the Southern Netherlands of their prosperity; and, although the treasures of Spanish America flowed into his coffers, he died a bankrupt. His eldest son, Don Carlos, a youth of unhappy disposition, became insane through his father's severity and died in imprisonment.

His Disastrous Reign.

Philip III., A. D. 1598–1621.

PHILIP III., the youngest and only surviving son of Philip II., succeeded his father as sovereign of Spain, Portugal, Naples, Sicily, Milan and Spanish America. The proud monarchy which under the father

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of Philip II. had held the balance of power in Christendom, and had been the leading Christian power, rapidly declined under Philip's insignificant successor. **Spain's Decline.**

SECTION XIII.—PHILIP II. OF SPAIN AND RISE OF THE DUTCH REPUBLIC (A. D. 1566–1648).

The Netherlands.

At the time of the accession of Philip II. to the sovereignty of Spain, Naples, Sicily, Milan and the Netherlands, in 1555, the Netherlands comprised seventeen provinces—the four duchies of Brabant, Guelders, Luxemburg and Limburg; the seven countries of Artois, Flanders, Hainault, Namur, Zutphen, Holland and Zealand; the five baronies of Mechlin, Utrecht, Friesland, Overyssel and Groningen, and the margravate of Antwerp. These seventeen small but populous provinces contained over two hundred walled cities, one hundred and fifty chartered towns, six thousand three hundred small towns and villages, sixty strong fortresses and a large number of castles, hamlets and farms.

Their Three Languages.

The seventeen provinces differed from each other in language, customs and laws. A corrupt dialect of French was spoken in the four Walloon provinces which bordered on France. Flemish was spoken in the central provinces, and Dutch in the northern—both languages being derived from the German. But all the provinces were united by a common tie of industry and interest, and by their allegiance to the same sovereign, the King of Spain; while they also had a common legislative assembly, called the *States-General*, which convened at irregular intervals. **The King of Spain and the States-General.**

Their Prosperity and Industry.

The Netherlands were the most prosperous portion of Europe, and their inhabitants were the most industrious and enlightened, it being a rare exception to find even a peasant among them who was unable to read and write. Agriculture was carried on to a high degree of perfection, and multitudes of skillful and industrious artisans were employed in manufactures; while the cities of Antwerp, Amsterdam and Rotterdam were the chief commercial centers of Europe.

Their Political Freedom.

The people of the Netherlands, or Low Countries, had long been among the freest in Europe; and among their chartered rights and liberties were the consent of their own Estates in the States-General to taxation, an independent judicature and the exclusion of Spanish troops and officials. These rights had been occasionally infringed during the reign of Charles V.; but hostilities were prevented by the love of the great Emperor for the Netherlanders, among whom he had been born. Philip II., on the contrary, was a haughty Spaniard, who looked upon the Netherlands as a conquered country, and who occasionally violated their hereditary privileges. **Charles V. and Philip II.**

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Progress of the Reformation in the Netherlands.

It was among these free and intelligent people that the doctrines of the Reformation had met with an early and favorable reception and had obtained many adherents. This state of things gave great annoyance to the Emperor Charles V., and he endeavored by eleven successive edicts to check the growth of Protestantism. As his edicts failed, he finally introduced the Inquisition into the Netherlands, but greatly restricted its powers and sought to deprive it of many of the cruel features which had marked its course in Spain. Nevertheless, it was impossible to change the character of that infamous tribunal, and during the reign of Charles V. several thousand Protestant Netherlanders died the deaths of martyrs by its orders.

Regency of Margaret of Parma.

When Philip II., in 1559, left the Netherlands for Spain he assigned the regency of those fair provinces to his half-sister Margaret, Duchess of Parma. Her Council was composed of Granvelle, Bishop of Arras—afterward Archbishop of Mechlin and cardinal; Viglius, an experienced lawyer and statesman, and Count Barlaimont, an honest and loyal Flemish nobleman.

William, Prince of Orange.

The most important man in the Netherlands was William, Prince of Orange, a friend and favorite of the Emperor Charles V. and a Catholic, but then only known for his vast wealth and his powerful connections. He was a member of the famous family known as the House of Nassau, which had been of princely rank in Germany for five centuries and had given one Emperor, and which was older in the Netherlands than the Houses of Hapsburg and Burgundy, to both of which Philip II. belonged.

His Principality.

The House of Nassau had lost the principality of Orange during the wars between the Emperor Charles V. and Francis I. of France, but that principality was restored to William by the Peace of Cateau-Cambresis, in April, 1559. William was a hostage in Paris before the conclusion of that peace, and King Henry II. of France then and there confidentially revealed to him the secret agreement between himself and King Philip II. of Spain for the extirpation of heresy in their respective dominions. Although William of Orange was then a Roman Catholic, his just soul revolted from such a plot, and he was thus opportunely put on his guard.

Secret Treaty for the Extirpation of Heresy.

Count Egmont's Mission to Spain.

The first step which alarmed the more liberal party in the Netherlands after the accession of Philip II. was the creation of many new bishoprics. Count Egmont, a highly distinguished Flemish nobleman, also a Roman Catholic, was sent into Spain to inform Philip II. of the growing discontents of the Netherlanders and to ask redress. But Count Egmont was misled by the king's flatteries and gifts, and he returned to his anxious friends with extravagant views of the good intentions of Philip II.

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PHILIP II RECEIVING A DEPUTATION FROM THE NETHERLANDS

From the Painting by S. Arcos

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The Inquisition and Persecution in the Netherlands.

Soon afterward the King of Spain ordered the Inquisition in the Netherlands to proceed without delay; declaring that he would rather lose a hundred thousand lives, were they all his own, than to tolerate the slightest deviation from the Catholic standards of faith. At the same time the laws against heresy were made so severe that reading the Bible and praying in one's own house were punishable with death. Philip's order of "death to heretics" caused thousands of Netherlanders to flee from the country. Thirty thousand Flemings settled in England, and their capital and skill in fine manufactures contributed to the growing prosperity of that country.

Opposition of the Netherlanders.

The Prince of Orange, though a Catholic and then governor of Holland and Zealand, refused to consent to the burning of his Protestant subjects, as did also the Catholic governors of several other Netherland provinces. Two thousand persons of all sects and parties in the Netherlands now united for mutual defense. They denounced the Inquisition, but reasserted their loyalty to King Philip II. and their determination to keep down all tumult and rebellion. They presented a list of demands to the regent, who became alarmed by the number and powerful array of her petitioners, but she was reassured when one of her Councilors branded the petitioners as "only a pack of beggars." The petitioners seized upon the opprobrious term as a party watchword; and the next day it was adopted by them at a great banquet, where Count Brederode appeared carrying a wallet and a wooden bowl, which was passed around the table amid jovial shouts of "Long live the Beggars!"

"The Beggars."

"Moderation" and "Murderation."

The government replied to the petition by issuing an edict which it styled the "Moderation;" but, as the only concession which it made was that of permitting heretics to be hanged instead of burned, the Netherlanders called the decree "Murderation." The excitement increased; and thousands began to assemble in the woods by night, and afterwards in daylight on the open plains, to listen to preachers who harangued them upon the miseries of the country. The multitudes grew bolder; and eventually riotous mobs in Brussels, Antwerp and other Netherland towns demolished the cathedrals and destroyed the images of the Virgin and the saints. At length the regent Margaret, who was virtually a prisoner in her own house, was forced to sign a permission for Protestants to assemble for worship so long as they congregated peacefully and unarmed and did not in the least molest the Catholics, A. D. 1566.

Riotous Outbreaks.

Battle and Massacre near Antwerp.

Secret intelligence from Spain convinced the Netherlanders that an appeal to arms was inevitable. A battle was fought near Antwerp, in March, 1567, in which fifteen hundred of the "Beggars" were slain; and three hundred others were subsequently massacred. After vainly

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trying to mediate between the hostile parties, the Prince of Orange retired into Germany.

The Duke of Alva in the Netherlands.

When Philip II. heard of the outbreaks in the Netherlands he tore his beard in rage; and, seeing the necessity of assigning the direction of affairs in the Netherlands to stronger and sterner hands than those of his half-sister, he sent the infamous Duke of Alva, a man of iron will and cruel inflexibility of purpose, to crush the revolt. The Duke of Alva arrived at Brussels with a Spanish army in August, 1567, and treacherously seized Counts Egmont and Horn and imprisoned them in a dungeon at Ghent, although they were Catholic nobles; after which he organized an infamous tribunal in his own house at Brussels and by his own authority; and this tribunal soon justified its name, the "Council of Blood."

"Council of Blood."

The Prince of Orange and Count Buren.

The Prince of Orange and the Netherland nobles who were with him in Germany were summoned to appear before the Council of Blood, but they replied by denying its authority. Count Buren, the eldest son of the Prince of Orange, was thereupon torn from his studies at the University of Louvain and sent a prisoner into Spain. As the Duchess Margaret of Parma was thus superseded in her command by the cruel Duke of Alva, she resigned the regency of the Netherlands and retired into Italy; whereupon the Duke of Alva assumed her powers and became Governor-General of the Netherlands.

Margaret and the Duke of Alva.

Hangings, Decapitations and Burnings.

In February, 1568, a decree of the Inquisition, confirmed by a royal edict ten days afterward, sentenced the whole population of the Netherlands to death, with a few exceptions specially stated. Although this extravagant decree was not literally executed, it was made the warrant for innumerable atrocities. Common criminals were hanged, nobles were beheaded and obstinate heretics were burned. At first the king's officials obtained a revenue from the confiscated property of the victims of Spanish tyranny; but, as this revenue was soon exhausted, an arbitrary tax of one per cent upon all real estate and personal property, five per cent upon all transfers of real estate, and ten per cent upon all other articles sold, aroused the indignation even of the classes who had escaped the persecutions.

Confiscation and Taxation.

Wholesale Ruin.

These measures struck a terrible blow to the prosperity of the Netherlands. Commerce ceased; towns were deserted, and people on the coast took refuge upon the sea or beyond, while many in the interior fled to the forests and became the terror of travelers and of the neighboring villages. The Prince of Orange granted letters of marque to many of the sea-farers, called "Sea-Beggars," who, as privateers, or pirates, preyed upon Spanish commerce and became a terror to Spanish seamen. The outlaws of the woods were known by the name of "Wild Beggars."

"Sea Beggars" and "Wild Beggars."

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Maximilian's Protest and Philip's Reply.

The Emperor Maximilian II. remonstrated with his cousin, King Philip II. of Spain, and claimed the "Circle of Burgundy" as under his own protection; but Philip II. replied that he would rather not reign at all than reign over heretics, and that he would persevere in the policy which he had inaugurated though the skies should fall.

The Prince of Orange and His "Justification."

The Prince of Orange now mustered three armies from his own resources and from the contributions of the Dutch and Flemish cities, and planned a threefold attack upon the provinces held by the Spanish troops under the Duke of Alva. Before appealing to arms, the Prince of Orange published a "Justification," denouncing the Council of Blood and all the atrocious acts of the cruel Governor-General, and charging King Philip II. with having forgotten all his own royal oaths as sovereign of the Netherlands, as well as the services which the House of Orange had rendered to Philip II. and his ancestors. Two of the Netherland armies were defeated. The third patriot army, under Count Louis of Nassau, the brother of the Prince of Orange, achieved a brilliant victory over the Spaniards near Groningen; but his other brother, Adolf of Nassau, was killed, as was also the Spanish commander D'Aremberg.

Netherland Victory.

Execution of Counts Egmont and Horn.

Counts Egmont and Horn were tried by the Duke of Alva's Council of Blood at Brussels, and were hastily condemned and executed. As both were Knights of the Golden Fleece, they had a right to be tried only by the statutes of their order. Egmont might also have claimed the privileges of his native province, the duchy of Brabant—privileges which King Philip II. had solemnly guaranteed at his accession; while Horn, who was a German count, was subject to trial only by the Electors and princes of the Germano-Roman Empire. But law and equity were disregarded by the bigoted King of Spain and his cruel instrument, the Duke of Alva; and both Egmont and Horn were beheaded in the great square of Brussels, June 5, 1568. Two years afterward Count Horn's brother, the Baron Montigny, who had gone on an embassy to Spain in 1566, was privately garroted in the prison to which he had been illegally consigned.

Netherland Defeats.

After the execution of Counts Egmont and Horn, the Duke of Alva marched against Count Louis of Nassau, who was defeated at Emden with the loss of his entire army and escaped into Germany without any followers. His brother, the Prince of Orange, was soon afterward forced to disband his army; and both brothers proceeded with several hundred cavalry to the assistance of the Huguenots in the civil-religious wars of France, while waiting for a more auspicious time for the deliverance of their own oppressed country.

For four years the Sea-Beggars had carried their prizes into English harbors, where they obtained water and provisions, though Eng-

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Queen Elizabeth and the "Sea Beggars."

land was then nominally at peace with Spain. Queen Elizabeth secretly supplied the Flemish patriots with money; while Philip II. sent gold, spies and assassins into England to instigate conspiracies against its Protestant queen. But at length the Queen of England, unwilling to declare war against the King of Spain, and unable to continue her assistance to the rebels of the Netherlands without doing so, forbade her subjects to sell food to the Sea-Beggars.

Seizure of Briel.

Thereupon De la Marck, a Flemish captain, with twenty-four vessels, sailed from England to the northernmost island of Zealand and seized its capital, Briel, which he made the stronghold of the Sea-Beggars. Thus encouraged, the towns of Walcheren, Enckhuisen and many others in the Northern Netherlands hastened to cast off the oppressive yoke of the Duke of Alva and his despotic master, the King of Spain. Deputies from the nobles and cities assembled at Dort, July 15, 1572, and declared William, Prince of Orange, to be the lawful Stadtholder of the four provinces of Holland, Zealand, Friesland and Utrecht during the absence of King Philip II. of Spain. This was the founding of the Dutch Republic; and Queen Elizabeth's order-in-council led directly thereto, though not so intended.

William of Orange, Stadtholder.

Dutch Republic Founded.

Netherland Successes.

The Duke of Alva was in despair for the moment. The French court seemed to have become Protestant for the time, and to be resolved to espouse the cause of the heretics in the Netherlands. Count Louis of Nassau was beseiged in Mons; but his brother, the Prince of Orange, had advanced with a force of German auxiliaries and captured Ruremond, Dendermonde, Mechlin and Oudenarde, and was on the point of relieving Louis when the situation was entirely changed by the news of the Massacre of St. Bartholomew in France.

Spanish Successes and Massacres.

An auxiliary force of Huguenot soldiers from France, paid by their king, Charles IX., to coöperate in the defense of Mons, were betrayed, and were massacred in cold blood after being taken prisoners, in accordance with their king's recommendation to the Duke of Alva. Mons surrendered to the Spaniards on honorable terms. All the towns of the duchy of Brabant and the county of Flanders were forced to submit to the Duke of Alva. Mechlin was the scene of a three days' pillage and massacre. The revolt in the southern provinces of the Netherlands was ended by defeat, but in the northern provinces it triumphed, and the Prince of Orange returned to Holland and came into possession of the government of the new Dutch Republic.

The Dutch Fleet.

The Dutch fleet was frozen up in the harbor of Amsterdam during the winter of 1572–'73. The Spaniards marched across the ice to attack this fleet, but it was successfully defended by a troop of Dutch musketeers on skates. One of the most obstinate of the operations of the war was the siege of Haarlem. Several hundreds of the most

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honorable women enrolled and armed themselves for the defense of their native city and participated in several battles. Thousands of Spaniards perished from cold, hunger and sickness; but Haarlem finally surrendered to the Spaniards, and between two and three thousand of its citizens were put to death. Warned by the dreadful example of Haarlem, the town of Alkmaar made so resolute a defense that the Spanish commander was obliged to raise the siege.

Siege and Capture of Haarlem.

Defense of Alkmaar.

The Duke of Alva was recalled from the Netherlands in 1573. According to his own boast, the death-sentence which the Council of Blood had pronounced against all "heretics" was so well executed that during his administration of six years (A. D. 1567–1573) eighteen thousand persons were put to death.

Eighteen Thousand Executions.

The Duke of Alva's successor as Spanish Governor-General of the Netherlands was Don Louis de Requesens, whose just and liberal character was a pledge of a more conciliatory policy. Wholesale robbery and massacre were now discontinued, but the arbitrary and oppressive taxes were still levied, and the Council of Blood continued its sittings.

Don Louis de Requesens.

The Netherland patriots were everywhere victorious at sea, but the invincible Spanish infantry maintained its old renown. Count Louis of Nassau marched with some German recruits to join his brother, the Prince of Orange, but was defeated and killed near Nimeguen, February, 1574.

Defeat and Death of Louis of Nassau.

The Spaniards now pressed the siege of Leyden with vigor, and the heroic defense of the city by the Dutch was one of the most remarkable events of the sixteenth century. The garrison was small, but the resistance was maintained chiefly by the valor and constancy of the citizens. Famine began its horrors in June, 1574, and the city was not relieved until October 3, 1574.

Siege of Leyden.

The Prince of Orange anxiously watched the foe from his headquarters at Delft and Rotterdam, but could only bring his fleet to the relief of the beleaguered city by opening the dykes on the Meuse and the Yssel, and thus laying the country under water and flooding the Spanish trenches. The young grain was in the fields; but the states consented to the sacrifice, and the dykes were cut under the direction of the Prince of Orange.

Opening of the Dykes.

The starving citizens of Leyden, from their towers, watched the rise of the flood from the sea which engulfed their fertile fields and which was to bring them relief. A provision fleet of two hundred vessels sailed from Delft, but the waters were twice driven back by an east wind, and the fleet lay helplessly stranded; while the more feeble and desperate citizens crowded around the burgomaster in the city, clamoring for either food or surrender. The burgomaster replied: "I have taken an oath never to put myself or my fellow-citizens in the power

Dutch Provision Fleet Stranded.

The Burgomaster's Resolution.

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of the false and cruel Spaniards; and I will die rather than break it. But here is my sword; plunge it, if you will, into my breast, and devour my flesh, if that will relieve your hunger."

Relief of Leyden.

The starving people of Leyden were roused to new courage by the noble example of their burgomaster, and their patience was finally rewarded. A north-westerly gale which set in on October 1st forced the waters of the North Sea over the ruined dykes. The Dutch fleet was now fairly afloat, and it engaged in a strange midnight struggle with the Spanish fleet amid the boughs of orchards and the chimneys of submerged buildings; but the resolution of the Spaniards was finally worn out by the wonderful constancy and determination of the Dutch, in whose cause the elements of wind and water appeared enlisted. Even the fall of a large part of the walls of Leyden, which the water had undermined, frightened the Spaniards only, and they hastily evacuated their two forts and fled. The Dutch fleet sailed up the channel thus formed, and distributed loaves of bread all the way to the crowds of hungry people along the banks.

Public Thanksgiving.

No sooner were the pangs of hunger relieved than the entire population of Leyden walked in joyful procession to the principal church in the city, and there rendered thanks to God for their great deliverance.

University of Leyden.

The next day a north-easterly gale swept the inundating waters back into the sea, and the dykes were soon repaired. The institution of an annual fair of ten days and the founding of a university at Leyden rewarded the citizens for their heroic defense, and that university has

Calvinism.

honored Europe with many illustrious men. The Synod of Dort in 1574 established Calvinism as the state-religion of the new Dutch Republic.

Mediation of Emperor Maximilian II.

Thus defeated in war and ruined in finance, Philip II. of Spain at length accepted the mediation of his cousin, the Emperor Maximilian II., which he had refused so arrogantly before; and with this object a congress was held at Buda, in Hungary, for three months in 1575.

War Renewed.

But, as the Spanish king would make no concessions, and as the revolted Netherlands had no reason to have any confidence in his word, the war was renewed with more than its former fury.

Spanish Mutiny and Pillage of Antwerp.

Don Louis de Requesens, the Governor-General of the Netherlands, died in March, 1576—an event which was followed by still greater confusion in the distracted country. The unpaid Spanish soldiers broke out into open mutiny, marching through the provinces, plundering and destroying without hindrance. They made themselves masters of the towns of Alost, Ghent, Utrecht, Maestricht and Valenciennes; and finally they subjected Antwerp, the richest city of the Netherlands and then the banking center of all Europe, to a frightful pillage and massacre lasting three days, during which a thousand houses were reduced to ashes and eight thousand citizens slaughtered.

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Pacification of Ghent.

This disastrous state of affairs in the southern provinces of the Netherlands induced the Prince of Orange to persuade the authorities at Brussels to summon the States-General; and when that assembly was convened he complied with their request by sending several thousand troops to drive the Spanish soldiery from Ghent. An alliance, called the *Pacification of Ghent*, was now formed by all but one of the provinces of both the Northern and the Southern Netherlands, November 8, 1576; by which it was agreed to summon the Estates of all the Netherlands to an assembly like the one which had received the abdication of the Emperor Charles V., and also to drive all Spanish troops from the Netherlands and to provide for religious peace and toleration.

Don John of Austria as Governor-General.

Just before the Pacification of Ghent, Philip II. of Spain appointed his half-brother, Don John of Austria, the victor of Lepanto, to the office of Governor-General of the Netherlands, to fill the vacancy caused by the death of Don Louis de Requesens. But the Netherlanders were so united in resisting the Spaniards that Don John was obliged to enter even Luxemburg—the only Netherland city that had refused to join the others in the Pacification of Ghent—in the disguise of a Moorish slave, November, 1576.

His Perpetual Edict.

As Don John was without money or soldiers, his only alternative was to concede all the demands of the revolted Netherlanders and to take an oath to observe all the charters and customs of the country; and these concessions were embodied in the *Perpetual Edict*—a name seemingly intended for mockery, as King Philip II. had instructed his half-brother to promise everything but to perform nothing. As the Netherlanders still refused to give Don John possession of the citadel of Brussels, he revenged himself by treacherously seizing the fortress of Namur and by capturing Charlemont and Marienburg; but the citizens of Ghent and Antwerp destroyed the citadels of those cities to prevent him from getting possession of them.

His Seizures and Captures.

Archduke Matthias of Austria.

The Catholic nobles of the Netherlands now set up the Archduke Matthias of Austria, brother of the Emperor Rudolf II. of Germany, as a rival to Don John of Austria. The Prince of Orange recognized Matthias as Governor-General of the Netherlands, and was named his lieutenant. The bonds between the Northern and Southern Netherlands were more closely drawn together by the *Union of Brussels*, a new league of all the states of the Netherlands for the common defense, on the basis of perfect religious toleration. That was the last time that all the Netherlands were united until the first part of the nineteenth century (A. D. 1814–1830).

Union of Brussels.

About this time Queen Elizabeth discovered a plot of Don John to depose her, marry Mary Stuart and reign over England; the plot

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Queen Elizabeth's Aid to the Netherlands.

being favored by Pope Gregory XIII. and by the Guises of France, but being viewed with unbrotherly jealousy by the King of Spain. In consequence of this plot the Queen of England rendered more effective assistance to the Netherlands by sending six thousand men to aid the forces of the revolted provinces, early in 1578.

Alexander Farnese of Parma.

Philip II. had prepared for this action of England's queen by sending his nephew, Alexander Farnese of Parma, the son of Philip's half-sister Margaret, the former regent of the Netherlands, with reinforcements of Spanish and Italian veterans.

Netherland Defeat.

The army of the Netherlands was almost annihilated in the battle of Gemblours, but the struggling patriots were more than consoled for that disaster by the accession of Amsterdam to the Union of Brussels a week afterward.

Don John Defeated.

In August, 1578, Don John was defeated at Rymenants, chiefly by the English auxiliaries, and died from disease two months afterward.

Alexander Farnese, Governor-General.

His successor as Governor-General was Alexander Farnese of Parma, who was the greatest general of the time, though he did not possess that fascination of manner which rendered his predecessor so extremely popular.

The Duke of Anjou.

In the meantime the Catholic party which had set up the Archduke Matthias of Austria discovered that he was a useless puppet, and virtually deposed him by calling in the Duke of Anjou, brother of King Charles IX. of France and of Henry III., the next King of France.

His Weak Character.

The Duke of Anjou was a weak and insignificant character, capable of being flattered by the high sounding title of "Defender of the Liberties of the Netherlands." He hoped to become King of England by marrying Queen Elizabeth—a hope which the English queen, by her subtle and wavering policy, neither indulged nor denied.

The Duke of Anjou and Queen Elizabeth.

The Duke of Anjou entered the county of Hainault with a French army in September, 1578, and took several towns from the Spaniards; but he then feigned submission to the will of Queen Elizabeth by returning into France. As England's great queen believed firmly in the "divine right of kings," she was not favorable to the independence of the Netherlands, but she desired that their hereditary sovereign should be forced to respect their rights and liberties. Her council, however, desired to see the Netherlands severed from the crown of Spain, even if they became dependencies of France.

Democratic Insurrection in Ghent.

The union of the seventeen states of the Netherlands finally received its death-blow by the excesses of the popular party, and not by foreign despotism. An insurrection was incited at Ghent against the terms of the religious peace by two Protestant noblemen of radical principles and depraved character. The rebels imprisoned the governor of Ghent, and organized a democracy in which the legislative power was vested in the deans of the guilds and the captains of the militia, while the

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executive authority was assigned to a council of eighteen citizens. The same thing occurred in many other towns of the Southern, or Catholic Netherlands.

Dissensions among the Netherlanders.

The Archduke Matthias of Austria and the Prince-Palatine, John Casimir, supported the democracy; and these dissensions among the reputed friends of liberty were detrimental to the interests of the Netherlands. The arms which should have presented a united front to the common foe were turned against each other. The four Walloon provinces bordering on France were ravaged by a Huguenot force from that kingdom; while the Walloons, with French assistance, devastated the country as far as Ghent.

Division in the Netherlands.

The destructive elements were mingled with the Huguenots of France in these disorders, which thus effecutally severed the Southern, or Catholic provinces of the Netherlands from the Union of Brussels. The Prince of Orange had endeavored vainly to suppress the revolutionary movements by protecting the interests of the Catholic priests and people; but he succeeded only in forming a closer union of the seven Northern, or Protestant provinces of the Netherlands—Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Guelders, Overyssel, Friesland and Groningen—which were thus united in a permanent league by the *Union of Utrecht*, in 1579, making the Dutch Republic a certainty. These seven provinces, while acknowledging a nominal allegiance to Philip II., resolved to drive all foreigners from the country and to restore the old laws, customs and privileges of each province.

Union of Utrecht.

Congress at Cologne.

A congress at Cologne, under the auspices of the Emperor Rudolf II., and attended by the envoys of the Netherlands, Philip II. of Spain, Pope Gregory XIII., several German states, France and England, failed to bring about the union and reconciliation of all the provinces of the Netherlands, as neither side would make any concessions, though seven months were occupied in diligent diplomacy.

Dutch, Flemish and Walloon Provinces.

The four Walloon provinces submitted to King Philip II. on condition that he should withdraw the Spanish troops; and thus the Netherlands were divided into three parts—the Protestant United States in the North; the middle or Flemish provinces, whose population was almost equally divided between Roman Catholicism and Protestantism; and the wholly Catholic Walloon provinces in the South.

Capture and Pillage of Maestricht.

Alexander Farnese of Parma took Maestricht at the close of June, 1579, after a siege of three months; and that city suffered terribly from the brutal rage of the victorious Spanish troops. Order was restored in Ghent by the Prince of Orange, who exacted a just restitution of property which had been plundered during the riots.

By the advice of Cardinal Granvelle, who had now returned to power, King Philip II. published his royal ban against William, Prince of

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William of Orange Outlawed by Philip II.

Orange, the Stadtholder of the Dutch Republic. By this sentence of outlawry the King of Spain denounced the crimes of Cain and Judas Iscariot against the illustrious and blameless patriot, set a price of twenty-five thousand gold crowns upon his head, and offered a title and rank of nobility to any one who would assassinate him, as well as pardon for all the crimes which he might have committed, however heinous they might be.

His Masterly Reply.

William of Orange replied to the Spanish king's denunciation by a most remarkable state-paper, in which he treated that denunciation with the contempt which it so richly merited. In this document William declared that Philip II. had forfeited all his hereditary claims upon the Netherlands by his violation of his solemn oaths and the charters of those states, "not once only, but a million of times." He indignantly hurled back upon the Spanish king himself the charge of having fomented discord in the Netherlands, as that monarch's atrocious cruelty had made his most loyal and peaceful subjects the victims of pillage and massacre. William ridiculed Philip's attempt to terrify him by setting a price upon his head, and inquired if the Spanish king could imagine him to be ignorant of the numerous previous efforts of bribed poisoners and assassins. The Prince of Orange sent his document to most of the sovereigns of Europe, affixed with his name and seal, which bore the characteristic motto: "I will maintain."

The Duke of Anjou as Ruler of the Netherlands.

Negotiations were now resumed with the Duke of Anjou, and the Archduke Matthias of Austria was allowed to retire on a pension. The French prince signed an agreement to make his permanent residence in the Netherlands, to convene the States-General once a year and to observe strictly the rights and privileges of the provinces. He was in turn invested with full sovereignty in all the provinces of the Netherlands, except Holland and Zealand, which were reserved for William, Prince of Orange.

Act of Abjuration.

The States-General of the Netherlands, assembled at The Hague, by a solemn *Act of Abjuration*, July 26, 1581, renounced all their allegiance to Philip II. of Spain, and declared Francis of Valois, Duke of Anjou, sovereign lord of the Netherlands. The Act of Abjuration was drawn up by Sainte Aldegonde, a friend of the Prince of Orange, and is the first distinct declaration of the natural right of a people to cast off their allegiance to an unjust sovereign. This state-paper asserted that princes are appointed by God to rule for the welfare of their subjects, and that if they neglect their sacred duty by oppressing their people instead of protecting them the people are no longer bound in law or in reason to recognize their authority. This was a charter of political freedom similar in character to the American Declaration of Independence.

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Capture of Cambray and Antwerp by the Duke of Anjou.

The Duke of Anjou led a French army of seventeen thousand men into the Netherlands, forced Alexander Farnese of Parma to raise the siege of Cambray and entered that city in triumph. Several months afterward he made a joyous entry into Antwerp, where the Prince of Orange invested him with the ducal cap and mantle, and duly proclaimed him *Duke of Brabant and Margrave of the Holy Roman Empire*. Other Netherland provinces successively installed him in their respective sovereignties; but he was dissatisfied with the limited power thus conferred, and was intensely jealous of the superior influence of the Prince of Orange. He was even already plotting with his worthless favorites to overthrow the very liberties which he had solemnly sworn to maintain.

His Treachery.

Revolt of Antwerp against Him.

The Flemings had never trusted the Duke of Anjou; and when he brought his army to take military possession of Antwerp, under pretense of a review, in January, 1583, the inhabitants of that city arose in arms against him, secured their streets with chains and barricades, and made so determined a resistance that only half of the French soldiers escaped from the city with their lives. Antwerp suffered less from the "French Fury" of 1583 than from the "Spanish Fury" of 1576, mainly because the French troops of the Duke of Anjou commenced plundering before they massacred, while the Spanish troops of the Duke of Alva first slaughtered and then easily took possession of the property of their victims.

His Flight from the Netherlands.

As the Duke of Anjou was thus frustrated in his design, he fled on horseback in the direction of Dendermonde. A dyke was opened on his route and a thousand of his followers were drowned. Having thus by his own act ceased to be the "Defender of the Liberties of the Netherlands," the Duke of Anjou retired to Dunkirk, and soon left the country, never to return, though a treaty of reconciliation was signed in March of the same year, 1583.

Spanish Reinforcements.

As the Spaniards had by this time completed the conquest of Portugal, Alexander Farnese of Parma received large reinforcements from Spain, and was thus enabled to resume active operations. The patriot party retained possession of only three Flemish towns before the autumn of 1584.

Assassination of William of Orange

The greatest loss sustained by the Netherland patriots was the assassination of their great leader, William, Prince of Orange, the Stadtholder of the Dutch Republic, in July, 1584. Five attempts had been made upon his life in two years by the agents of the King of Spain. The first of these attempts was so nearly successful that his wife died from anxiety and suspense in consequence. The last and successful attempt was that of the fanatic Balthazar Gerard, of Franche-Comté, who gained admission to the household of the Prince of Orange

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under pretense of obtaining a passport, and shot him at the door of the royal banqueting-hall at Delft. The assassin was instantly seized and put to death with horrible cruelty; but his parents received the rewards which King Philip II. had promised the assassin, and the lasting badges of their shame were three lordships in Franche-Comté with a title among the landed aristocracy.

His Character and Statesmanship.

The Netherland patriots deeply mourned their dead leader and little children cried in the streets. The Dutch Republic owed its existence to the self-denying and steadfast energy of William of Orange, though he was not permitted to live to see its freedom established. He was the greatest statesman of his time, and possessed in a remarkable degree the art of reading the designs of others and concealing his own purposes; and this last accomplishment gave him the surname of *the Silent*, rather than any social taciturnity of manner.

His Rejection of the Offers of Philip II.

He had spent his vast fortune in his country's service; and he had repeatedly refused the most tempting offers of wealth and dominion, by which Philip II. of Spain had endeavored to detach him from the patriot cause. Philip II. had offered to release his imprisoned son and to confer cities, estates and sovereignties in Germany upon William himself, who, in fact, had only to name his terms for deserting the often seemingly hopeless cause of the Netherlands. In alluding to the magnificent offers made to him, the Prince of Orange had afterward said: "They well know that I would not for property nor for life, for wife nor for children, mix in my cup a single drop of the poison of treason."

Prince Maurice of Orange, Stadtholder.

The murdered leader's son, Count Buren, was still detained a prisoner in Spain—an alien as much from his father's faith and patriotism as from his home. Upon William's assassination, his second son, Prince Maurice of Orange, then only eighteen years of age, was immediately proclaimed Stadtholder of Holland, Zealand and Utrecht, and High Admiral of the Union.

Siege of Antwerp.

The siege of Antwerp lasted almost a year and taxed all the masterly talents of Alexander Farnese of Parma, while the ability of Sainte Aldegonde and the extraordinary valor and constancy of the citizens were displayed in the defense of the city. The Spaniards spent half a year in constructing a fortified bridge or causeway below the city to cut off its communication with the maritime provinces. The garrison vainly endeavored to destroy this bridge by means of fire-ships, and sought to open a new passage to the sea, but were defeated in a bloody battle fought upon the dykes.

Its Capture and Ruin.

Antwerp finally surrendered, A. D. 1585. Its fortress was rebuilt from the ruins of private dwellings, and with the entry of a Spanish garrison and the Jesuits "civilization and commerce departed." So

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complete was the desolation and decay that grass grew and cattle fed in the streets of the city which had been the banking center of all Europe; while the intelligence, thrift and industry of its citizens found other homes.

Queen Elizabeth's Alliance with the Dutch Republic.

As Queen Elizabeth of England knew herself to be marked as the victim of a plot similar to the one which had ended the life of William of Orange, she now concluded an open alliance with the Dutch Republic and sent money and troops to its assistance, justifying her action before the world by a state-paper in which she enumerated the iniquities of the Spanish government toward the Netherlands and the secret hostilities of the King of Spain toward herself.

The Earl of Leicester as Governor-General.

In return for the assistance of England's queen, the Dutch Republic placed Flushing and Briel in her possessions as security for the moneys expended, and bestowed the title of Governor-General upon the Earl of Leicester, the commander of the English forces in the Netherlands. Although Queen Elizabeth had repeatedly refused the sovereignty of the Netherlands when it was offered to her, she burst into a furious rage when she was informed of her favorite general's acceptance of that dignity.

Queen Elizabeth's Anger.

Queen Elizabeth's sharp reprimand to the Earl of Leicester was read in the presence of the States-General of the Netherlands, and contributed much toward neutralizing all the advantages of the alliance, as it aroused strong suspicions that the English queen was secretly in correspondence with the King of Spain—suspicions which were not wholly groundless. In retaliation for Elizabeth's manifesto, Philip II. seized all English subjects and all English property in his dominions at that time, and Alexander Farnese of Parma pressed hostilities in the Netherlands with redoubled vigor.

Retaliation of Philip II.

Siege of Zutphen and Death of Sir Philip Sidney.

In September, 1586, the English under the Earl of Leicester besieged Zutphen; and it was in a skirmish before that city that the gallant Sir Philip Sidney, the most accomplished knight and the gentlest spirit of the age, received a wound which caused him to die the death of a hero three weeks afterward at Arnheim. The Earl of Leicester soon proved his military incompetency, and returned to England at the close of 1587; whereupon Prince Maurice of Orange was assigned the chief command of the forces of the Dutch Republic, while Lord Willoughby was left in charge of the English troops only.

Maurice of Orange.

The Spanish Armada against England.

As we have seen in the history of England, the execution of Mary Stuart, Queen of Scots, at Fotheringay Castle, in England, in February, 1587, by order of Queen Elizabeth, aroused the wrath of Philip II. of Spain and of Pope Sixtus V. against England's Protestant queen; and the Spanish king sent the Invincible Armada against England in the summer of 1588 for the conquest of that kingdom as pre-

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Result of Its Destruction.

liminary to the subjugation of the Netherlands and the overthrow of Protestantism in Europe. The destruction of that gigantic Spanish fleet by the English navy and by a series of furious tempests virtually secured the independence of the Dutch Republic.

English Invasion of Portugal.

The English retaliated in 1589 by invading Portugal in a vain attempt in the interest of Dom Antonio, and became masters of the suburbs of Lisbon and seized sixty Hanseatic vessels laden with supplies for a new armada. The Spaniards were not prepared for another encounter with English bravery.

Spanish Operations.

In the Netherlands the military operations of the Spaniards were paralyzed by an exhausted treasury, as the soldiers of Alexander Farnese of Parma were unpaid and almost starved; and that commander was ordered by King Philip II. to lead his army into France in the interest of the Catholic party in that kingdom, the throne of which had just received a Protestant king, Henry IV., the first Bourbon sovereign of France.

Success of Maurice of Orange.

The wise and victorious generalship of Prince Maurice of Orange reunited the Seven Provinces of the Dutch Republic. He overran the county of Flanders and the duchy of Brabant, and established himself on the left banks of the Meuse and the Scheldt.

Death of Alexander Farnese.

Alexander Farnese, Duke of Parma, the Spanish Governor-General of the Netherlands—whose remarkable military talents and statecraft preserved the Flemish provinces to Spain—died in December, 1592;

Ernest of Austria.

and the Archduke Ernest of Austria, brother of Matthias and of the Emperor Rudolf II., was appointed to the Governor-Generalship of the Netherlands by the Spanish king.

War between Spain and France.

War was declared between France and Spain in January, 1595, and Spanish armies invaded France both from Spain itself and from the Netherlands. The Spaniards took Cambray, October 2, 1595, and Calais in April, 1596. As Queen Elizabeth feared a Spanish invasion of England, she entered into an alliance with King Henry IV. of France

Alliance of England and France.

and with the Dutch Republic. The defeat of the Spanish fleet in the harbor of Cadiz by the combined English and Dutch fleets under Sir Francis Drake, who destroyed between thirty and forty Spanish merchantmen, was followed by the abandonment of the city to the victorious allies, whose fleets returned home laden with great spoil, A. D. 1596.

Destruction of a Second Spanish Armada.

The next year another English and Dutch naval expedition was defeated by a furious tempest, which also destroyed the second armada which Philip II. of Spain had fitted out for another attempt to invade England, with the design of dethroning Queen Elizabeth and placing his favorite daughter upon the English throne. The English fleet, which had merely been driven back to port, then sailed to the Azores and captured Fayal, Graciosa and Flores, A. D. 1597.

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Spanish Defeats and Victories.

In the Netherlands, Prince Maurice of Orange defeated the Spaniards at Turnhout, mainly by the then novel device of supplying his cavalry with firearms. The Spaniards under the Archduke Albert of Austria soon afterward took the town of Amiens, in France, by stratagem; but the French forces under King Henry IV. recaptured the town after a siege of a few months.

Peace of Vervins.

King Philip II. of Spain was now aged and infirm and drained of his resources, and he consented to a peace with France, through the mediation of Pope Clement VIII., who had long been desirous of uniting the forces of Christendom against the heretics and the Turks; and by the Peace of Vervins, in May, 1598, Philip II. restored all the conquests which his armies had made from the French, except the fortress of Cambray.

The Infanta Isabella.

In August, 1598, the Infanta Isabella, daughter of Philip II., was acknowledged sovereign of the Netherlands and Franche-Comté. Her intended consort, the Archduke Albert of Austria, received an equal share in the government; and both were called "the Archdukes," in order to render their dignity identical. Philip II. died the next month, September 13, 1598, without seeing the end of the war which his bigotry and tyranny had provoked in the Netherlands, and which had already lasted more than thirty years.

Death of Philip II.

Prosperity and Maritime Power of the Dutch Republic.

At the close of the sixteenth century the Dutch Republic was the leading maritime power of Europe. Its prosperity had been increased by immigration from the southern provinces of the Netherlands, which where still held and oppressed by the Spaniards; so that new towns had to be built in the Dutch Republic or new streets added to the old towns, in order to accommodate the manufacturers and merchants from the duchy of Brabant and the county of Flanders. In these two provinces villages and even towns were depopulated; so that foxes, wolves and wild boars prowled over the land which once had been occupied by a thriving population, two hundred persons having been killed by wild beasts in the immediate vicinity of Ghent in one year, 1586–'87.

Dutch Victory.

By extending and confirming its power, the Dutch Republic had been able in the meantime to inflict several severe blows upon the Spanish dominion. Prince Maurice of Orange defeated the Spanish army of the "Archdukes" before Nieuport, capturing one hundred standards and all their artillery and baggage.

Siege of Ostend.

The siege of Ostend by the Archduke Albert lasted almost four years (A. D. 1601–1604), and the Dutch defeated a formidable assault of the Spaniards by opening the dykes and thus drowning many of the assailants.

Reinforcements.

In 1602 the Spanish army engaged in the siege of Ostend was reinforced by the famous Genoese general, Ambrose Spinola, with eight thousand troops; while the Dutch were reinforced by six thousand Eng-

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lish troops under Sir Francis Vere, sent to their aid by Queen Elizabeth.

Death of Queen Elizabeth. The death of the great English queen, in March, 1603, was a severe loss to the Protestants throughout Europe, to whom she had been a powerful protectress, notwithstanding her inconsistencies; and her successor, James I., who was a still more obstinate believer in the "divine right of kings," looked upon the Dutch as rebels and traitors.

Capture of Ostend. The siege of Ostend, in which one hundred thousand men had perished, ended with the surrender of the city to the Spaniards, September 20, 1604; but before its fall the Dutch captured Sluys and all the ships in its harbor.

Truce. A large party in Holland, under the leadership of the Grand Pensionary, Van Olden Barneveldt, now desired peace, though all were agreed to treat with Spain only on the condition of the independence of the Dutch Republic. In the spring of 1607 a truce of eight months on land was arranged, but the Dutch admiral Heemskirk was sent from Amsterdam with a formidable fleet to harass the coasts of Spain and Portugal and to protect the Dutch ships returning from the East and West Indies. This Dutch fleet destroyed almost the whole Spanish fleet in a fierce battle in the harbor of Gibraltar, both admirals being slain; but the Dutch fleet was scarcely injured, and was able speedily to intercept the treasure-galleons and merchantmen from Spanish America.

Dutch Naval Victory at Gibraltar.

Philip III. and the "Sea-Beggars." King Philip III. of Spain was obliged to beg a truce from the "Sea-Beggars;" but he refused to treat with them on any other condition than as his subjects, and signed his treaty, "I, the king," without the Great Seal, which was indispensable in all treaties with foreign powers.

Truce of 1609. Through the mediation of France and England, a truce for twelve years was signed at Bergen-op-Zoom, April, 1609, by which the Dutch Republic virtually secured its independence, after a struggle of forty years. By this treaty the Dutch secured possession of the spice-bearing Molucca Islands, in the East Indies, along with the privilege of trade with both the East and West Indies. The Dutch Republic also increased its home territories by the annexation of the whole of Dutch Flanders and several important towns on the frontiers of Brabant, and by the possession of forts they obtained command of the Scheldt. But it was almost forty years later before Spain formally acknowledged the independence of the Dutch Republic, which was finally done by the Peace of Westphalia, in October, 1648, which ended the Thirty Years' War in Germany and the Eighty Years' War of Independence in the Netherlands.

Independence of the Dutch Republic.

Spanish Netherlands. The Southern, or Catholic provinces of the Netherlands—the present Kingdom of Belgium—under the name of the *Spanish Netherlands*, continued to belong to the Spanish crown until 1714; when, by the

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Treaty of Rastadt, they were ceded to the Austrian House of Hapsburg, which held possession of them for almost a century under the name of the *Austrian Netherlands*.

Calvinists and Arminians.

No sooner had the Dutch Republic achieved its independence than it began to be distracted by unhappy religious disputes between the Calvinists and the new sect of the Arminians, respecting the Augustinian and Calvinistic doctrine of predestination. The strict Calvinistic party were led by the Stadtholder, Prince Maurice of Orange; while the Arminians, or moderate party, who rejected Calvin's severe views on predestination, were led by many of the best men in the country, among whom were the Grand Pensionary, Van Olden Barneveldt, the author of the constitution of the Dutch Republic, and Hugo Grotius, the renowned jurist and the learned historian of the Dutch War for Independence.

Van Olden Barneveldt and Hugo Grotius.

Synod of Dort and Calvinism.

The Synod of Dort in 1618 decided in favor of the strict Calvinistic doctrine, and condemned the Arminians without a hearing, also banishing or deposing the Arminian preachers. The noble patriot Van Olden Barneveldt, who had done more for the freedom of Holland than any other man except William of Orange, whose friend he was, was then condemned to death. Barneveldt disdained to ask Maurice of Orange to spare his life. Maurice, who could have saved it, declined to interfere; and the unfortunate Barneveldt was beheaded, in the seventy-second year of his age, May 14, 1619. Hugo Grotius was condemned to perpetual imprisonment, but was finally rescued by the cunning of his faithful wife.

Execution of Van Olden Barneveldt.

Hugo Grotius.

States-General, High Council and Stadtholder.

The legislative power of the Republic of the United States of Holland was vested in an assembly called the States-General; and the executive power was exercised by a High Council, at the head of which was a Stadtholder. Holland emerged from her long struggle for independence strong and prosperous. The Dutch navy was the largest in Europe, and for almost two centuries Holland was the most powerful commercial and maritime rival of England. The Dutch East India Company was formed in 1602, and many of the Portuguese possessions in the East Indies were taken possession of by the Dutch. The most flourishing of the Dutch colonies was the city of Batavia, in the island of Java, which was founded in 1619, and which became the capital of the Dutch colonial empire in the East Indies.

Dutch Navy.

Dutch East India Company.

Dutch Colonies.

The most prominent of the Dutch colonial possessions were Surinam, or Dutch Guiana, in South America, founded in 1580; the Spice Islands, wrested from the Portuguese in 1607; the Gold Coast of Guinea, in Western Africa, wrested from the Portuguese in 1611; Batavia, in the island of Java, founded in 1619; New Netherlands, in North America, founded in 1623; the Cape of Good Hope, in

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Southern Africa, colonized in 1652, and the island of Ceylon, wrested from the Portuguese in 1656.

East and West Indies.

In the East Indies the Dutch obtained exclusive possession of the large islands of Java, Sumatra, Borneo and Celebes, the peninsula of Malacca and two posts in Hindoostan. The Dutch also colonized some small islands in the West Indies. Their colonial policy was very arbitrary and exclusive.

Frederick Henry as Stadtholder.

Prince Maurice of Orange died in April, 1625, and was succeeded as Captain-General of the United States of the Netherlands by his brother Frederick Henry, who was also elected Stadtholder of Holland, Zealand and West Friesland.

SECTION XIV.—CIVIL WARS OF RELIGION IN FRANCE (A. D. 1562–1598).

Persecution of French Protestants by Francis I.

The Protestants of France had been cruelly persecuted during the reign of Francis I., who said in a vehement speech before the Bishop of Paris that if one of his limbs was infected with heresy he would cut it off, and that he would sacrifice his own son if he were guilty of that crime. On that occasion six Lutherans were burned alive in the most cruel manner, being alternately let down and drawn up from the flames by means of a machine until they expired.

Henry II., A. D. 1547–1559.

Henry II. was in his twenty-ninth year when he succeeded his father, Francis I., on the throne of France, March 31, 1547. He disregarded his father's dying advice not to employ the Constable Montmorenci in any post of authority and to curb the rising power and ambition of the Guises with a strong hand, and dismissed his father's Ministers, recalled Montmorenci and conferred the highest offices on the Guises.

Constable Montmorenci and the Guises.

Wars of Henry II. with Charles V. and Philip II.

The events of the foreign wars of Henry II. of France—his alliance with the Elector Maurice of Saxony in his war against the Emperor Charles V.; his seizure of Metz, Toul and Verdun, in 1552; the Emperor's unsuccessful attempt to recapture Metz, in 1553; the capture and destruction of Terouenne by Charles V., in 1553; the campaign of the French under the Duke of Guise against the Spaniards under the Duke of Alva in the Papal States, in 1557; the defeat of the French by the Spaniards at St. Quentin, in 1557, and the capture of Calais from the English by the French under the Duke of Guise, in 1558—have all been related in detail and need not be repeated here.

France Ruled by the Guises.

The capture of Calais made Francis, Duke of Guise, the most popular man in France. The Guises were a powerful family of Lorraine, and were descended from Réné of Anjou. During the captivity of the Constable Montmorenci, who had been taken prisoner by the

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victorious Spaniards in the battle of St. Quentin, the Guises ruled France through the important civil, military and ecclesiastical offices which they held in the kingdom.

The Guises in France and Scotland.

The Duke of Guise was Lieutenant-General; and his brother, the Cardinal of Lorraine, was Minister of the Interior and of Finance. A third brother commanded the French fleet, and a fourth had charge of the French army in Piedmont. They ruled Scotland through their sister Mary, the widow of King James V. of that kingdom; Mary being the regent for her young daughter, Mary Stuart, the unfortunate Queen of Scots, who spent most of her girlhood at the French court, where she was educated. The marriage of this young Queen of Scots with the Dauphin Francis, April 8, 1558, increased the power of her mother and uncles, the Guises, in both France and Scotland. A secret article of this marriage treaty stipulated that the crowns of France and Scotland should be forever united.

Mary Stuart and the Dauphin Francis.

Peace of Cateau-Cambresis.

The power of the Guises, who were bigoted Catholics, hastened the religious crisis in France; while the Peace of Cateau-Cambresis, April 2, 1559, between France, Spain, England and Scotland, divided Europe into two great religious parties, and gave rise to the fierce wars of religion which distracted Western Europe for the last forty years of the sixteenth century. By this treaty France surrendered one hundred and eighty-nine towns and fortresses in various parts of Europe, relinquished all of Savoy and Piedmont, except Turin and four other fortresses, and restored her conquests in Italy and the Netherlands; but she retained Calais and Guines, which she had wrested from England, and Metz, Toul and Verdun, which she had wrested from the Germano-Roman Empire. The Princess Elizabeth, daughter of Henry II. of France, was married to Philip II. of Spain; and Henry's sister Margaret was married to the Duke of Savoy, Emmanuel Philibert, Iron Hand.

Corrupt Rule of Henry II.

During the reign of Henry II. the French government was utterly corrupt; the king's mistress, Diana of Poitiers, selling the offices of state in the most shameless manner; while his queen, Catharine de Medici, was neglected by her royal husband, and was without any authority during his entire reign.

The Huguenots.

Antoine de Bourbon, King of Navarre.

Prince of Conde and Admiral Coligni.

In spite of persecution, the Reformation made remarkable progress in France during the reign of Henry II.; in the last year of which the *Huguenots*, as the French Protestants were called, had about two thousand places of worship in the kingdom, which were attended by congregations numbering over four hundred thousand persons. The Huguenots were Calvinists in faith and worship, and their acknowledged chief was the first prince of the blood royal, Antoine de Bourbon, who had become King of Navarre by his marriage with Jeanne d'Albret, the heiress of the Navarrese crown. The other recognized Huguenot

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leaders were the Prince of Condé, Admiral Coligni and his brother, the Sire d'Andelot, and other great French nobles.

Secret Article against Heresy.

The growing strength of the Huguenot party alarmed the French court. As we have seen, a secret article of the Peace of Cateau-Cambresis pledged Kings Henry II. of France and Philip II. of Spain to exterminate heresy within their respective dominions.

Calvinism in France.

The Calvinistic Church of France had organized itself during the month following the Peace of Cateau-Cambresis. Calvin's rescripts issued from Geneva were received by the Protestants of France with as much reverence as were those of the Pope by the adherents of the Roman Church. The Huguenots were most numerous among the more intelligent classes of France, and included many bishops, clergy and monks.

The Inquisition in France.

With the approval of King Henry II., Pope Paul IV. issued a bull providing for the establishment of the Inquisition in France; but the Parliament of Paris refused to register the king's edict for this purpose, and intrusted proceedings in matters of religious faith to two committees of the Parliament itself, one of which was called the *Burning Chamber*, because of the many victims whom it consigned to the flames. The Parliament of Paris condemned these rigors in 1559; but King Henry II. personally interfered in the discussion, and by his orders seven members of the Parliament who advocated a more merciful policy were arrested and imprisoned. To the remonstrances of the Calvinistic synod the king replied that he would himself witness the burning of one of these prisoners.

The Parliament of Paris and the Burning Chamber.

Henry II. and the Huguenots.

The resolute resistance of the Parliaments of Paris and the provinces and the courts of justice to the measures of the king and the Pope aroused the anger of Henry II., and he prepared to crush with a strong hand all opposition to his will. Appreciating their peril, the Huguenots organized for their defense, and appealed to the Protestants of Germany for assistance.

Accidental Death of Henry II.

In this crisis, King Henry II. met with an accidental death in the prime of life, one month after his visit to the Parliament of Paris. The marriages of the two French princesses which followed the Peace of Cateau-Cambresis were celebrated at Paris with great festivities and rejoicings. Among the ceremonies was a grand tournament, which was held in the space between the royal hotel and the tower of the Bastile, where the imprisoned members of the Parliament of Paris were incarcerated. Henry II. challenged the captain of his guard, the Count of Montgomery, a Scottish nobleman, to a tilt. Henry's queen protested, and the Count of Montgomery endeavored to excuse himself from the encounter; but the king persisted, and the tilt took place. Both lances were shivered, and a splinter from that of the Scottish nobleman entered

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the king's eye between the bars of his helmet, so that the monarch fell senseless to the ground. He survived in a state of insensibility for eleven days, and then died in the forty-first year of his age and the thirteenth of his reign, July 10, 1559.

Francis II., A. D. 1559–1560.

Francis II., the son and successor of Henry II., was a weak and sickly youth in his sixteenth year when he became King of France, and was completely under the influence of his wife, Mary Stuart, the young Queen of Scotland, who was in her turn ruled by her uncles, the Guises, who were the real masters of both France and Scotland for a year, and who sought to crush the Reformation in both kingdoms, but encountered a determined resistance in both, which soon burst forth in the flames of civil war.

Mary Stuart and the Guises.

Catharine de Medici and the Guises.

The queen-mother, Catharine de Medici, allied herself with the Guises for the time, and patiently waited for an opportune moment to overthrow them and to take their place as the real ruler of France. The reign of Francis II. began with a relentless persecution of the Huguenots, thus arousing a spirit of determined resistance. The Guises were held responsible for the cruelties inflicted upon the French Protestants; and, as that family was a younger branch of the reigning ducal dynasty of Lorraine, which owed allegiance to the Germano-Roman Empire, they were regarded in France as foreigners.

Persecution of the Huguenots.

Political and Religious Parties in France.

The arrogance of the Guises made many enemies for them even among the Roman Catholics of France, and the party which opposed that powerful family was largely a national party, so that France was divided as much by political as religious dissensions. The old feudal nobility of France and the highest princes of the blood royal were on the side of the Huguenots; while the Guises were supported by the queen-mother, Catharine de Medici, and by the powerful influence of Pope Paul IV. and Philip II. of Spain.

The Huguenots and the Conspiracy of Amboise.

The national party, which favored the Huguenots, or at least general toleration in religious faith, resented the persecuting policy of the Guises, not alone for its inhumanity, but also as the impertinent interference of foreigners. The national party demanded that the States-General be assembled, but the government refused this demand. Thereupon the Huguenots organized the *Conspiracy of Amboise* to drive the Guises from power and try them for maladministration, to summon the States-General, to get the young king into their own possession and to make Antoine de Bourbon regent. The plot was betrayed; and the Guises took a bloody vengeance upon their enemies, causing twelve hundred persons to be executed for complicity in the conspiracy.

Twelve Hundred Executions.

Huguenot Reaction.

The cruelties of the Guises caused a reaction throughout France in favor of the Huguenots, and really strengthened that sect instead of

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Edict of Romorantin.

destroying it. The queen-mother, Catharine de Medici, now advocated milder counsels, and caused Michel de l'Hopital to be appointed Chancellor. His first act was to secure the publication of the *Edict of Romorantin*, committing the punishment of heresy to the bishops exclusively. As this prevented the establishment of the Inquisition in France, it was really a gain for the French Reformers.

The Guises and the Huguenot Leaders.

King Francis II. also agreed to summon the States-General, which had not been convened for seventy-six years. These concessions greatly elated the Huguenots, who began to entertain hopes of overthrowing the Guises after all. The Guises were resolved upon destroying the King of Navarre and the Prince of Condé, the leaders of the movement against them; and, after obtaining evidence implicating these Protestant leaders in the Conspiracy of Amboise, they caused the Prince of Condé to be arrested and sentenced; but the sudden death of Francis II., December 5, 1560, saved the Bourbon princes from death.

Death of Francis II.

Overthrow of the Guises in Scotland.

In the meantime the dominion of the Guises had been overthrown in Scotland by the surrender of Leith to a combined Scottish and English army, after a long and severe siege, during which Mary of Guise, the queen-regent of Scotland, had died; and by the Treaty of Edinburgh the French evacuated Scotland, and Queen Mary Stuart and her husband, Francis II. of France, were forced to drop the arms and title of King and Queen of England, A. D. 1560.

Treaty of Edinburgh.

Charles IX., A. D. 1560–1574.

CHARLES IX., a boy of nine years, succeeded his brother Francis II. as King of France; and the queen-mother, Catharine de Medici, became regent for her little son without opposition. The supremacy of the Guises in France was shaken by the new turn of affairs, and the leaders of the Huguenot party came into power. Catharine de Medici spared the lives of the Bourbon princes; so that, by playing off one party against the other, she might maintain her own ascendency. By holding the balance of power evenly between the two parties and by allowing neither to predominate, the queen-regent hoped to strengthen her own power. As the King of Navarre had resigned his claims to the regency in France, she appointed him Lieutenant-General of the kingdom, and released the Prince of Condé from prison and assigned him a place at her council board.

Catharine de Medici and the Huguenot Leaders.

The States-General.

The States-General assembled at Orleans, December 13, 1560; but, as they were startled by the enormity of the public debt, they declared that they could accomplish nothing, and were dissolved in January, 1561. On the same day the Edict of Orleans granted most of the reforms which the Huguenots had demanded, and put a stop to religious persecution. For a while the queen-regent, Catharine de Medici, offended by the arrogance of the Guises, courted the favor of the Huguenots.

Edict of Orleans.

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Catholic Triumvirate.

The Constable Montmorenci, who had always been a friend of Spain and a devoted Catholic, now united with Francis, Duke of Guise, and Marshal St. André in a *Triumvirate* for the suppression of heresy; but, as the drift of affairs was then against them, they retired from court.

The States-General against the Guises.

The States-General convened again in August, 1561, after a new election in which the Huguenots were victorious. This new States-General confirmed Catharine de Medici in the regency; but insisted that no cardinal should be a member of the Council of Regency, because he owed allegiance to a foreign sovereign, the Pope; that no bishop should be admitted into the same council, because the law required him to reside within his diocese; and that no *foreigner*—meaning the Guises—should have a place in the council.

Religious Conference at Poissy.

Theodore Beza.

An important conference of divines was held at Poissy, in September, 1561, in the presence of the boy king, Charles IX.; his mother, the queen-regent, Catharine de Medici; Antoine de Bourbon and Jeanne d'Albret, the King and Queen of Navarre; and many prelates and theologians. Theodore Beza, of Geneva, Calvin's co-laborer in the Reformation, made so favorable an impression upon the court by his eloquence, fearlessness and noble demeanor that the queen-regent requested him to remain in France, in the hope that his presence might contribute to peace and a better understanding between the two parties which divided the kingdom.

Huguenot Excesses.

Disturbances.

The Catholics of France bitterly resisted the concessions to the Huguenots, who were so elated by their success that they were led into some serious errors. Wherever the Huguenots found themselves in the majority they forcibly took possession of the churches, and profaned the altars and destroyed the images of the Virgin and the saints. The Catholic leaders took advantage of these Protestant outrages to excite the alarm of their party, and serious disturbances broke out in different parts of the kingdom.

Edict of Toleration.

Catharine de Medici and the Huguenot Leaders.

In January, 1562, an *Edict of Toleration*, prepared by the Presidents and Councilors of the Parliaments of France, officially recognized the Calvinistic Church and permitted the Huguenots to congregate unarmed by daylight for worship in the suburbs of towns, though not within the walls. The queen-mother, Catharine de Medici, in granting this Edict of Toleration, was supported by the Prince of Condé, the Châtillons and the Chancellor Michel de l'Hopital. The Huguenots were, however, required to restore the church property which they had seized, and to desist from preaching against Roman Catholicism.

Catholic Opposition.

The gulf between the Catholics and the Huguenots was too deep to be closed so easily. The Catholic leaders, particularly the Guises, whose zeal for the Roman Church was stimulated by their ambition, pre-

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pared for an appeal to arms, and were satisfied with nothing less than the complete submission of the Huguenot party. The Triumvirate therefore resolved to forcibly oppose the Edict of Toleration.

Demand of Philip II.

Philip II. of Spain wrote to his mother-in-law, Catharine de Medici, that she must purify France with fire and sword, or the pestilence of heresy would overspread Spain and the Netherlands. The weak-minded King of Navarre was won over to the Catholic side by promises of the island of Sardinia or of a marriage with the young widowed Mary Stuart, Queen of Scots.

Defection of the King of Navarre.

Francis, Duke of Guise, and the Catholic Party.

Francis, Duke of Guise, who had retired into Lorraine and was collecting troops, was so greatly alarmed by the Edict of Toleration that he resolved to return to Paris, where his presence was impatiently awaited by the Catholic party. He therefore started for Paris at the head of two hundred cavalry.

Massacre of Vassy.

On a Sunday morning the Duke of Guise halted at the village of Vassy, in the county of Champagne, one of the possessions of the Guise family. A congregation of Huguenots were then assembled for religious worship in a large barn near the village, and the Duke of Guise marched his attendants to the barn to break up the meeting. The Huguenots were unarmed, and endeavored to close the doors of the barn; but the duke's men broke open the doors and rushed in. The intruders were received with a volley of stones, one of which struck the duke on the cheek. He instantly ordered his men to exterminate the heretics, and his command was obeyed to the letter. More than two hundred and fifty of the Huguenots were killed and wounded, and the entire congregation would have suffered such a fate had not the Duchess of Guise earnestly and pitifully implored her husband to stop the massacre.

The Duke of Guise and Catharine de Medici.

The Duke of Guise then proceeded to Paris, where he was welcomed with enthusiasm as the champion of the Catholic religion in France. The queen-mother, Catharine de Medici, foreseeing the consequences of the massacre at Vassy, and unwilling again to become subject to the power of the Guises, made an effort to escape with her son, King Charles IX., from Paris; but she was overtaken by the Duke of Guise with an armed force at Fontainebleau, and was compelled to return with the boy king to the Louvre. Thenceforth Francis, Duke of Guise, was the real master of France as long as he lived.

First Civil and Religious War.

The massacre at Vassy was the signal for a furious civil and religious war; and for the next thirty-six years (A. D. 1562–1598), with various periods of intermission, France was deluged with the blood of her own people. Other dreadful massacres in various parts of France followed that of Vassy. So many were slaughtered at Tours that the banks of the Loire were covered with corpses for some distance.

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Theodore Beza and the King of Navarre.

Theodore Beza hastened to the court to remonstrate. The King of Navarre, who was present, held the Huguenots wholly responsible. Beza replied in these memorable words: "I admit, Sire, that it is the part of God's Church, in whose name I speak, to endure rather than inflict blows; but may it please you to remember that it is an anvil which has worn out many a hammer."

Catholics Aided by Philip II. of Spain, the Duke of Savoy and Pope Pius IV.

Both parties sought foreign aid in the civil war which ensued. The Prince of Condé and the Huguenots wore the colors of King Charles IX., and announced their design to deliver him from the power of the Guises; but the Triumvirate and their partisans wore the red scarf of Spain. King Philip II. offered thirty-six thousand Spanish troops; but the Catholic leaders besought money instead, as they feared the scandal which a Spanish invasion would bring upon their cause. The Duke of Savoy led his own troops to the aid of the French Roman Catholics, and Pope Pius IV. contributed one hundred thousand crowns to the cause of that party. Queen Elizabeth of England contributed an equal sum of money to hire German mercenaries for the Huguenots, and sent six thousand English troops to join the Huguenot armies. The Huguenots gave up Havre to her officers as security for the restitution of Calais.

Huguenots Aided by Queen Elizabeth.

Siege of Orleans.

Many of the principal towns in France declared for the Huguenots. Orleans became their capital and was blockaded by the armies of the Catholic party. The King of Navarre was mortally wounded at the siege of Rouen. In the battle of Dreux—the first conflict of any magnitude in this series of bloody civil-religious wars—the Prince of Condé and the Constable Montmorenci, the respective leaders of the Huguenot and Catholic armies, were both taken prisoners.

Battle of Dreux.

Assassination of Francis, Duke of Guise.

Admiral Coligni then became the leader of the Huguenots; while Francis, Duke of Guise, remained as the sole head of the Catholic party, and even dreamed of becoming the successor of Charles IX. on the throne of France; but his ambitious schemes were cut short by his assassination by a Protestant, who shot him from behind during the siege of Orleans, February, 1563. With his dying breath, the Duke of Guise advised the queen-mother, Catharine de Medici, to make peace with the Huguenots.

Peace of Amboise.

The queen-mother was the one who gained most by the assassination of the Duke of Guise, as her real administration of the regency then commenced. The first religious war in France was closed by the Peace of Amboise, in March, 1563, by which the nobles and great vassals of the French crown, with their retainers and subjects, secured religious toleration. This was a mere hollow truce, as we shall presently see. The Catholic party accused Admiral Coligni of instigating the assassination of the Duke of Guise, but Coligni denied the charge.

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Huguenot Colonies in North America.

Admiral Coligni had promoted maritime enterprise and colonization in America; and the first settlements within the limits of the present United States had been made under his auspices, though these settlements had a very transient existence. In 1562 a colony of Huguenots under Jean Ribault settled at Port Royal and built Fort Carolina, so named after King Charles IX.; but the settlement was soon abandoned. In 1564 another Huguenot colony under Laudonniere settled on the St. John's River, in Florida, where they erected a second Fort Carolina. Pedro Melendez de Avilez, a cruel Spaniard, commissioned for the purpose by King Philip II., massacred these Huguenot settlers, "Not as Frenchmen, but as heretics." Dominic de Gourgues, a fiery Gascon Huguenot soldier, fitted out an expedition, sailed to Florida, surprised the Spanish forts near the ruins of Fort Carolina in 1568, and hanged the garrisons on trees, placing over them the inscription: "Not as Spaniards and mariners, but as traitors, robbers and murderers."

Massacred by Spaniards of Florida.

Huguenot Revenge.

Charles IX. and Catharine de Medici.

As King Charles IX. had reached his fourteenth year in 1564 he was declared to have attained his majority, and he nominally assumed the government of France, but relinquished all real power to his mother, Catharine de Medici. He passed all of the year 1564 in visiting the various parts of the kingdom with her. While at Bayonne she was visited by her daughter Elizabeth, the wife of King Philip II. of Spain, attended by the Duke of Alva, Philip's confidential Minister. Many secret conferences were held between Catharine de Medici and the Duke of Alva, believed to have had reference to the speedy extinction of heresy in France and the Netherlands.

Secret Conferences with the Duke of Alva.

Second Civil and Religious War.

These conferences were known to the Huguenot leaders; and when the Duke of Alva began his persecutions in the Netherlands, in 1567, the Huguenots believed that their own doom had been decided upon by the French court. They therefore attempted to get the young king into their power, thus bringing on the second religious war in France, A. D. 1567. The Huguenots were defeated in the battle of St. Denis, near Paris, by the Catholics under the Constable Montmorenci, who was killed in the moment of victory, November, 1567.

Battle of St. Denis.

Catharine de Medici and the Duke of Anjou.

No new Constable was appointed; but Catharine de Medici appointed her favorite son, the Duke of Anjou, Lieutenant-General of the kingdom; that office having been made vacant by the death of Antoine de Bourbon, King of Navarre, at the siege of Rouen, in 1562. Catharine, however, retained the control of the royal armies in her own hands.

"Lame Peace."

Third Civil and Religious War.

The second civil and religious war in France was ended by the "Lame Peace," in 1568; but hostilities broke out a third time in 1569, and raged with greater fury than before. The Huguenots were defeated at Jarnac, March 13, 1569; their leader, the Prince of Condé,

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being wounded and taken prisoner, and assassinated after his surrender. The death of this able leader was a great loss to the Huguenots. His son Henry, who was then very young, afterward became one of the greatest of the Huguenot generals.

Assassination of the Prince of Condé.

After the assassination of the Prince of Condé the Huguenots promptly recognized young King Henry of Navarre, the son and successor of Antoine de Bourbon, as their leader; but the veteran Admiral Coligni retained the command of the Huguenot armies. The Huguenots suffered a more severe and decisive defeat at Moncontour, October 3, 1569, losing twelve thousand men; but their arms were generally successful in 1570, and the Catholics were depressed in turn. Catharine de Medici was now weary of the war; and her interests required peace, as she hoped to marry her third favorite son, Henry, Duke of Anjou, to Queen Elizabeth of England; while the skillful generalship of Admiral Coligni menaced Paris.

King Henry of Navarre and Admiral Coligni.

Catharine de Medici and Duke Henry of Anjou.

The third civil and religious war was ended by the Peace of St. Germain, August 8, 1570, by which the Huguenots were granted full toleration for their worship throughout France, except in Paris, and equal civil and political rights with the Catholics. As a guarantee for the faithful execution of the treaty, the Huguenots were allowed to garrison four cities—La Rochelle, Montauban, Cognac and Le Charité—with their troops for two years. Catharine de Medici granted these terms very reluctantly, and they were wrung from her by the Huguenot successes. The Catholic party in France was bitterly hostile to the treaty, and King Philip II. of Spain and Pope Pius V. remonstrated strongly against it as humiliating to the Roman Church.

Peace of St. Germain.

Concessions to the Huguenots.

Catharine de Medici merely wanted a respite from the civil war to enable her to reëstablish the royal authority in France, which had been seriously impaired by the long religious strife. She wished to strike a crushing blow at the Huguenots sooner or later, which she hoped would utterly destroy them. But for the time she executed the terms of the Peace of St. Germain in good faith, and for two years she showed so much favor to the Huguenots that Pope Pius V. began to regard her as an apostate from the Roman Catholic faith.

Catharine de Medici and the Huguenots.

The death of Elizabeth, the queen of Philip II. of Spain, for a time dissolved the friendly relations between her husband and her brother, young King Charles IX. of France. The revolt of the Netherlands against the tyrannical and persecuting policy of Philip II. also tempted Charles IX. to annex the four Walloon provinces of the Netherlands to the Kingdom of France, of which they had formerly been fiefs, and thus extend the French frontier on the north to the Scheldt. Though this secret scheme never brought on any open hostilities between France and Spain, Charles IX. gave his security to a loan

Growing Coldness between the Kings of France and Spain.

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negotiated by Admiral Coligni and Count Louis of Nassau, the brother of Prince William of Orange, for the rebels of the Netherlands.

The Huguenots and Their Stronghold, La Rochelle.

The Peace of St. Germain gave France a respite from the horrors of civil and religious strife for nearly two years, and the Huguenots were lulled into a delusive feeling of security by the conduct of Catharine de Medici and her son, King Charles IX. La Rochelle was the Huguenot stronghold and capital, where Queen Jeanne d'Albret of Navarre, the widow of Antoine de Bourbon, held her court and the Calvinistic Church of France its synods, undisturbed by the Guises or by the young King of France and his mother.

Proposed Marriage of King Henry of Navarre with Margaret of Valois.

To throw the Huguenots still further off their guard, Catharine de Medici now proposed that, in order to cement the new bonds of good feeling between the religious parties in France, her daughter, Margaret of Valois, should marry Prince Henry of Bearn, the young King of Navarre, the son of Antoine de Bourbon and his queen, Jeanne d'Albret, and the recognized leader of the Huguenot party. Jeanne, who was a woman of good sense, and who had reared her son in the Calvinistic faith, received Catharine's proposal with distrust; but Admiral Coligni and some of the other Huguenot leaders won her over to the scheme, though they did not have much faith in the queen-mother's professed friendship for their party. They believed that the proposed marriage might be a benefit to France.

Henry's Protestantism an Obstacle.

After the consent of all parties had been obtained there remained only one obstacle in the way of the proposed royal marriage. Young King Henry of Navarre was a Protestant, and the Princess Margaret was a Catholic. No Roman Catholic priest could celebrate a marriage between such a couple without a special dispensation from the Pope, and when Pius V. was applied to for such a dispensation he unhesitatingly and resolutely refused it.

Opposition to the Marriage.

King Charles IX. was very anxious for the marriage, and declared that if Pope Pius V. would not consent to the match he would have his sister married by a Huguenot preacher in "open conventicle." A dispensation was then procured. Vauvilliers, in his *Histoire de Jeanne D'Albret*, says that Catharine de Medici forged it. But the marriage was unpopular, and the Catholic party in France fomented the discontent which it aroused to the highest degree.

Admiral Coligni Honored by King Charles IX.

In the meantime Admiral Coligni had overcome his feeling of distrust and gone to court, and he was received with marked favor by King Charles IX. at Blois. Coligni's noble character won the young king's esteem; and the admiral was loaded with honors, wealth and tokens of the king's affectionate confidence. Coligni used the power thus conferred upon him by seeking to unite all sects and parties in France against the arrogant influence of King Philip II. of Spain.

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Several months afterward Jeanne d'Albret, the Queen of Navarre, followed Coligni's example by going to the French court.

Plot against Coligni and the Huguenot Leaders.

Coligni's influence over Charles IX. alarmed the young king's mother, who resolved upon the speedy destruction of the great Huguenot leader. She therefore cordially united with the Guises, who did their utmost to inflame the animosity of the Catholics toward the Huguenots. The leading men of the Huguenot party were invited to Paris to participate in the marriage festivities, in order that they might be within reach of the vengeance of Catharine de Medici and her accomplices in the conspiracy. The court courteously received and handsomely entertained these Huguenot leaders.

Suspicious Death of Queen Jeanne d'Albret of Navarre.

Shortly before the time appointed for the marriage of young King Henry of Navarre with the Princess Margaret, his mother, Queen Jeanne d'Albret, died at Paris, July 9, 1572, believed to have been poisoned by order of Catharine de Medici. The Catholic historian Davila says that she was poisoned, and that she was exempted from the wholesale massacre which followed because she was of royal blood. Many Huguenots took warning from her death and fled from Paris. Coligni was urged by his friends to leave Paris in time, but he had full confidence in the king's word.

French Troops Aid the Revolted Netherlanders.

Early in the summer of 1572 King Charles IX. sent a military force into the county of Flanders to aid the patriots of that Netherland province in their revolt against Philip II. of Spain. This French force achieved some successes at first, but finally sustained a reverse; whereupon it became necessary to decide upon the future policy of France with respect to the struggle in the Netherlands. Admiral Coligni and the Huguenot party were in favor of an immediate declaration of war against Spain; but Catharine de Medici and the Guises opposed such a course, and this made the queen-mother the more determined upon the execution of her plan.

Catharine de Medici's Confidants.

Catharine de Medici's principal confidants in her atrocious plot were her son Henry, afterward King Henry III. of France, Duke Henry of Guise, Marshal de Tavannes, the Count de Retz and the Duke of Nevers. These conspirators deliberately planned and executed the atrocious massacres which followed. The Catholic priests cordially assisted in the plot by preparing their followers for the bloody task assigned to them.

Marriage of King Henry of Navarre with Margaret of Valois.

Young King Henry of Navarre and the Princess Margaret of Valois were married at Paris by the Cardinal de Bourbon, August 18, 1572. The Catholic party of France were intensely exasperated by this royal marriage, and Paris began to be pervaded with ominous rumors. The French court abandoned itself to feasting and revelry, but the queen-mother and her confederates were diligently preparing for the execu-

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tion of their diabolical plot. The governor of Lyons received orders not to let the messenger who conveyed the tidings of the royal marriage proceed on his way to Rome until after August 24, St. Bartholomew's Day.

Attempted Assassination of Admiral Coligni.

The conspirators struck their first blow August 22, 1572, when the venerable Admiral Coligni was shot in the street and severely wounded by an assassin hired by Henry, Duke of Guise. King Charles IX. and his wicked mother visited the wounded Coligni in his bed-room, expressing great indignation at the attempt on his life, and declaring their determination to bring the assassin and his instigators to justice.

His Warning.

Coligni warned the young king of the pernicious effects of his mother's misgovernment, implored him to deprive her of power, and offered to support him in such a course with the entire force of the Huguenots.

Charles IX. and the Conspirators.

The young king went away very much affected by Coligni's words, and the conspirators were greatly alarmed. If Charles IX. remained faithful to Coligni they were lost, and they had gone too far to turn back. The masses, whose fanaticism they had inflamed to the highest degree, could not be restrained from violence; and the conspirators therefore determined to carry out their plot to its conclusion. They passed the day after his visit to Coligni in endeavoring to win the king over to the support of their fiendish plot. They excited the weak-minded king's alarm and wrath with rumors of Huguenot plots against him, and urged him to consent to the assassination of Admiral Coligni and the other Protestant leaders of France.

Their Plans and Preparations.

The young king, wrought up to the wildest fury by these accounts, declared that, as it was necessary to assassinate Coligni, not one Huguenot should escape with his life. The conspirators took Charles IX. at his word. It was agreed that Admiral Coligni should be the first to be murdered, and that his assassination should be followed by a general massacre of the Huguenots in Paris. The public arms in the royal arsenals were distributed among the Roman Catholic citizens, who were to wear white scarfs around their left arms and white crosses on their hats to distinguish them from the Huguenots. The detachments from the suburbs were called in to reinforce the royal guards. During the whole of August 23d the Catholic leaders were assiduously engaged in posting their forces and in preparing the citizens of Paris to make common cause with them in the bloody task to be executed.

Assassination of Admiral Coligni.

Between three and four o'clock in the morning of August 24, 1572—St. Bartholomew's Day—Henry, Duke of Guise, attacked the house of Admiral Coligni, who was murdered in his bed by one of the duke's men.

Bells Rung as Signals.

As soon as Catharine de Medici was informed of the great Huguenot leader's assassination she ordered the priests of the Church of St. Germain l'Auxerrois to ring their bell as the signal agreed upon

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CHARLES IX AND CATHARINE DE MEDICI AFTER THE MASSACRE OF ST. BARTHOLOMEW

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for the massacre to begin. Instantly every church bell in the city rang the call for the Catholics to begin their horrible task of slaughter.

Massacre of St. Bartholomew.

Paris, which before had been so silent and peaceful, instantly became a prey to confusion and strife. Lights gleamed from all houses; multitudes of armed men filled the streets; and instantly, as if myriads of wild beasts had been let loose, the city resounded with the demoniac yells of the murderers and the despairing cries of the victims. The Huguenots had been marked; and, as they were utterly taken by surprise, they were unable to defend themselves. Catharine de Medici and her attendants viewed the massacre from the palace windows, from which her son, King Charles IX., himself shot at some of the poor victims in the streets. The Prince of Condé and King Henry of Navarre narrowly escaped assassination, but their attendants were massacred in the courtyard of the Louvre.

The Massacre in Paris and Throughout France.

The slaughter went on in Paris for eight days and nights, sparing neither age, sex nor condition, and spread throughout France in six weeks. The king's orders for the extension of the massacre to other parts of France had been well obeyed, and the same bloody scenes which had made the capital a field of slaughter were enacted in many other towns of France—at Rouen, Orleans, Bourges, Troyes, Lyons, Toulouse and Bordeaux. Some of the Catholic commanders, however, refused to obey the king's orders; and one of them wrote to the court that he commanded soldiers, not assassins.

Number of Victims.

Such was the dreadful *Massacre of St. Bartholomew*, whose number of victims is variously estimated by different writers at from ten thousand to one hundred thousand. The estimate of the Duke of Sully was about seventy thousand; that of De Thou was about thirty thousand.

The Massacre as a Political Blunder.

No sooner had the massacre ceased than Catharine de Medici and her accomplices in the conspiracy discovered that they had committed a terrible political blunder, as the consequences were quite different from what the French court had expected. Many Roman Catholics renounced their religion and became Huguenots from a feeling of horror and shame.

Plans to Shift Responsibility for the Massacre.

Catharine de Medici and her fellow-conspirators endeavored to throw the responsibility for the massacre upon Duke Henry of Guise, but that nobleman refused to bear such blame; and they finally persuaded young King Charles IX. to declare before the Parliament of Paris that he was responsible for the massacre, that it was a political and not a religious act, and that it was necessary in order to suppress a dangerous Huguenot conspiracy, so that it was done in self-defense. Salviati, the Papal Nuncio at Paris, pronounced this declaration "false in every respect."

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How the Massacre Was Viewed Throughout Europe.

The Massacre of St. Bartholomew occasioned surprise in other countries of Europe, but excited very different feelings at the various courts. Upon receiving Catharine de Medici's letter informing him of the massacre, the bigoted Philip II. of Spain is said to have laughed for the only time in his life. His cousin, the good Emperor Maximilian II. of Germany, though a true Catholic, wept at the horrid crime. Queen Elizabeth of England received the French ambassador in a hall draped with funeral black, and without a word being spoken; so that the discomfited envoy, after having advanced through silent rows of black-robed figures, was obliged to depart as he came, without being permitted to offer his explanations. Pope Gregory XIII. celebrated the massacre as a Catholic victory, by the firing of a triumphal salute from the Castle of St. Angelo, a brilliant illumination of Rome, and a *Te Deum* in the Cathedral of St. Peter's, in which the Pope and the cardinals assisted, the Pope offering thanks to God for "this signal mercy." Gregory XIII. ordered a medal to be struck commemorating the event, and caused the Hall of Kings in the Vatican to be adorned with a fresco representing the massacre. At Geneva, St. Bartholomew's Day was appointed to be observed annually as a solemn fast.

Fourth Civil and Religious War.

The Massacre of St. Bartholomew led to a renewal of hostilities, and the fourth civil-religious war burst forth with a fury surpassing the three previous struggles. The Huguenot outbreak was directed by the Prince of Condé, who had succeded in making his escape from court.

Peace and Toleration.

The royal army engaged in an unsuccessful siege of La Rochelle, the Huguenot stronghold. A treaty of peace, in July, 1573, allowed freedom of conscience and worship to the Huguenots in La Rochelle, Montauban and Nismes.

Remorse and Death of King Charles IX.

Charles IX. at one time endeavored to put the whole responsibility for the great crime on the Guises; and the next moment he confessed the part he had taken, and expressed joy at what he considered a blow at heresy; but, from the time of the massacre, he was troubled with remorse and grief at his participation in the horrible crime. He imagined frequently that he saw the bloody forms of the massacred Protestants before his eyes; he had no rest night or day, and he was known often to sigh and to bemoan himself with tears. His health rapidly declined, and his miserable life was terminated at the age of twenty-three, May 30, 1574.

Henry III., A. D. 1574–1589.

Charles IX. was succeeded as King of France by his next brother, Henry III., who had been elected King of Poland the preceding year, 1573; and the queen-mother, Catharine de Medici, acted as regent until her son's return from Poland. As Henry had left refined Paris for barbarous Poland with the utmost reluctance, he now returned to the French capital to take possession of his native, hereditary and more

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delightful kingdom with the greatest satisfaction. He left Poland like a common thief, taking the Polish crown jewels with him, and was pursued sixty miles on horseback by many of the Polish nobles, who desired to secure their country from the anarchy which was sure to follow so sudden an abdication. As he passed through Italy the Duke a Savoy induced him to surrender Pignerol and the other fortresses which the French possessed in Piedmont.

His Abdication as King of Poland and His Return to France.

Henry III. was more contemptible and licentious than any of his brothers and predecessors, and did not possess the energy and talents requisite for the government of distracted France. At the beginning of his reign he announced his determination to make no concessions to the Huguenots, but he took no energetic or vigorous measures against them.

His Bad Character.

Henry III. married Louise de Vaudemont, a member of the Guise family—a marriage which augmented the power of the Guises, which was already too great for the security of the French crown. Duke Henry of Guise, the son and successor of Duke Francis, was now the head of that powerful family of Lorraine. Henry of Guise was brave, talented and popular, though on the whole he was inferior to his father. He had pretensions to the French crown in case Henry III. died without heirs, as that king was the last representative of the Valois dynasty. King Henry of Navarre, as the head of the Bourbon family, was the rightful heir to the French crown; but, as he was a Protestant, Duke Henry of Guise intended to contest his claim, basing his own pretensions on his descent from Charlemagne through Charles of Lorraine, the last of the Carlovingian dynasty.

Henry III. and the Guises.

Rival Claims of Duke Henry of Guise and King Henry of Navarre.

In spite of the efforts of the French court, the Huguenots had been strengthened by the events of 1573. The middle party, composed of just and moderate Catholics, under the leadership of the Montmorencies, were shocked by the crimes of the Guises and alarmed by the foreign alliances of that powerful and ambitious family.

The Montmorenci Family.

The consolidated monarchy which Louis XI. had built up so cautiously in France a century before seemed about to be dissolved into its feudal elements. La Rochelle, Montauban and Nismes—the Huguenot strongholds—were like independent republics. The provinces of Languedoc, Guienne, Poitou and others in the South-west of France united themselves in a league, which raised taxes, administered justice and directed military operations like a sovereign state. In every part of France governors of provinces and even commandants of towns and castles acted independently of the French crown.

Threatened Dissolution of France.

The points now in dispute were more political than religious, as most of the original Huguenot leaders were dead, exiled or apostate. Even King Henry of Navarre and the Prince of Condé reconciled themselves

Loss of Protestant Leaders.

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with the Roman Catholic Church the year after the Massacre of St. Bartholomew, though insincerely.

New Protestant Leaders.

The Duke of Alençon, the only surviving brother of King Henry III., now declared himself the protector of the Huguenots, and joined their army in the county of Poitou. The Prince-Palatine, John Casimir, who was also their ally, marched into France with an army of eighteen thousand men for their assistance.

"Peace of Monsieur."

La paix de Monsieur, "the Peace of Monsieur,"—so called in honor of the conventional title of the king's eldest brother—was concluded in May, 1576, and was the most favorable treaty that the Huguenots had yet obtained from the French court, as it granted perfect religious freedom throughout France, except at Paris and in the immediate precincts of the court, wherever it might be.

Changes of Territory.

By this treaty the Duke of Alençon received the provinces of Anjou, Touraine and Berry in full sovereignty; and he thenceforth bore the title of Duke of Anjou. After thus gaining all that he expected from his alliance with the Huguenots he deserted them, and afterward commanded an army against them. The treaty restored the duchy of Guienne to King Henry of Navarre, and assigned the county of Picardy to the Prince of Condé, while also reinstating all the Huguenot leaders in their offices and pensions.

The Catholic League.

The Catholics regarded the treaty as humiliating to France and to the Roman Church; and their discontent led to the formation of the *Catholic League* by the Catholic nobles of France, headed by Duke Henry of Guise. All the members of the Catholic League signed a formula promising "unlimited obedience to its head without respect of persons" and without reservation of the royal supremacy.

Its Aim and Its Alliance with Philip II.

Though the Catholic League was organized nominally to maintain the royal authority in France, its real aim was to establish the power of Duke Henry of Guise more firmly. The treasonable nature of the league became apparent only afterward when it placed itself under the protection of a foreign sovereign, Philip II. of Spain.

Its Plot in Favor of Duke Henry of Guise.

But a plot was already formed at Rome to seize and arraign the Duke of Anjou, exterminate the Huguenots, confine the incompetent King Henry III. in prison like the *Rois Fainéants* of the Merovingian dynasty, and place Duke Henry of Guise himself upon the French throne as a descendant of Charlemagne. This plot was discovered among the papers of a lawyer named David, who died at Lyons while returning to Rome; but it was regarded as a malicious fabrication of the Huguenots until the French ambassador in Spain forwarded to France another copy, which he had obtained from King Philip II.

Henry III. and the League.

King Henry III. was so alarmed by this evidence of the real designs of the Catholic League that he knew of no better way to avert its

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enemity than to place himself at its head. The States-General were already summoned to assemble at Blois early in the winter of 1577.

The Catholic League and the States-General.

The manifesto of the Catholic League was laid before the States-General, after being cleared of all expressions which seemed to limit or contest the royal prerogative. Some of the deputies signed it, but others refused. All were offended by the undignified position in which King Henry III. had placed himself by his cowardice, and refused to vote supplies to continue the war. The terms of the "Peace of Monsieur" were really too favorable to the Huguenots to have been sincerely guaranteed by the French court; and the Huguenots had been extending their conquests in the South-west of France, even while the States-General were in session.

Peace of Bergerac.

In September, 1577, the Peace of Bergerac closed the fifth civil-religious war in France, greatly curtailing the religious privileges granted to the Huguenots. Notwithstanding the perils which still menaced his throne, King Henry III. gave himself up more completely than ever before to base and frivolous amusements. The orgies of his court were paralleled only by that of the Roman Emperors in their deepest degradation. Luxury and violence held unbridled sway, and murders were almost of daily occurrence. The hostility of the Guises rendered it necessary for the king to remain at peace with the Huguenots.

Licentiousness of Henry III.

Catharine de Medici and King Henry of Navarre.

In the summer of 1578 Catharine de Medici, in company with her daughter, Queen Margaret of Navarre, and a "flying squadron" of court-beauties, visited Margaret's husband, King Henry of Navarre, in his capital, and passed more than a year in the South of France, employing all her Italian arts to pacify and conciliate the Huguenots.

Peace of Nerac.

The Peace of Nérac, in February, 1579, secretly granted greater favors to the Huguenots than had been allowed them by that of Bergerac, and closed the sixth civil-religious war in France.

"War of the Lovers."

In the spring of 1580 the seventh war of religion broke out, called the *War of the Lovers*, on account of its whimsical origin. It was closed by the mediation of the Duke of Anjou, who was anxious to assume the protectorate of the Netherlands, which the insurgents of those states offered him; while the French court found cause for a rupture with Philip II. of Spain in the sudden and alarming increase of his power by the conquest of Portugal.

Mediation and Peace.

The Duke of Anjou in the Netherlands.

In 1581 the Duke of Anjou, with the consent of his brother, King Henry III., led a French army into the Netherlands to assist the Flemish patriots in their revolt against Philip II. of Spain. He captured Cambray from Alexander Farnese, Duke of Parma. The Duke of Anjou was a suitor for the hand of Queen Elizabeth of England, whose alliance was of the greatest importance to the revolted Nether-

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lands. He was cordially welcomed by the Flemings, and was proclaimed Duke of Brabant and Count of Flanders. But when Queen Elizabeth refused to marry him his popularity suddenly vanished. He soon afterward attempted to make himself absolute master of Flanders, and was driven back into France by the indignant Flemings. He died of disease and disappointment in June, 1584.

Relations of Philip II. of Spain, Henry III. of France and Henry of Navarre.

In retaliation for the interference of the French court in Spanish affairs, Philip II. entered into a closer alliance with the Guises, who, in his interest, had watched and endeavored to thwart the French expedition sent to the Azores in the interest of Dom Antonio. When this failed, the King of Spain tried the other party, and repeatedly offered money to King Henry of Navarre to renew hostilities against King Henry III. of France. The King of Navarre rejected the Spanish king's overtures; and the death of the Duke of Anjou, in June, 1584, had the effect of drawing closer the relations between the two King Henries; for Henry of Navarre, as the head of the House of Bourbon, now became the heir-presumptive to the French throne.

Alliance of the Catholic League with Philip II.

The death of the Duke of Anjou also encouraged the aspirations of Duke Henry of Guise, and caused a renewal of the Catholic League under the protection of Philip II. of Spain. The chiefs of the league and the envoys of the King of Spain signed a formal treaty at Paris in December, 1584, some of the prominent articles of which were the "extirpation of all Protestant and heretical sects in the Netherlands, as well as in France, and the exclusion of heretical princes from the throne."

Manifesto of the Catholic League.

Philip II. promised the league a subsidy of fifty thousand crowns a month. Pope Gregory XIII. sustained the treaty; and a manifesto was issued in the name of the Cardinal de Bourbon, a very weak man, whom Duke Henry of Guise supported as the legitimate heir to the French crown, in order to conceal his own designs. This manifesto also declared the object of the Catholic League to be the defense of the Catholic religion.

Henry III. and the Catholic League.

King Henry III., alarmed by the movements of the Catholic League, but not daring to break with Philip II. of Spain, refused the petition of the states of the Netherlands which besought his protection in their revolt against the Spanish king; and by the *Edict of Nemours* he acceded to all the demands of the Catholic League. Henry III. revoked all previous edicts of toleration, and warned all Huguenots to leave France within six months. Thus Henry III. was forced to become the ally of the very men who were seeking to destroy his throne.

Edict of Nemours.

"War of the Three Henries."

Pope Sixtus V., upon his accession, in 1585, formally excommunicated King Henry of Navarre; and during that year the Huguenots took up arms in self-defense, under the leadership of King

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Henry of Navarre, the Prince of Condé and the Duke of Montmorenci, against the forces of the Catholic League under Duke Henry of Guise and King Henry III. This was the eighth of this series of civil and religious wars, and was called the *War of the Three Henries.*

Catholic Plot against Henry III.

Though nominally an ally of the Catholic League, King Henry III. at heart wished for its defeat, because its success meant his ruin. Early in 1587 a plot for the king's dethronement was detected in Paris. But the power of Duke Henry of Guise was so great that the weak king dared not take any action against him. The shallowness of the king's character became more apparent than ever before. While his kingdom was distracted with these fierce dissensions he amused himself with his dogs, monkeys and parrots, or in foolish and fantastic entertainments which drained his already-exhausted treasury.

His Bad and Weak Character.

German Aid to the Huguenots.

In the meantime King Henry of Navarre gained a great victory over the royal army at Coutras; but, as he neglected to follow up his success, a large German army under John Casimir, the Prince-Palatine, sent into France to assist the Huguenots, was surprised and defeated with heavy loss by Duke Henry of Guise in Anneau. The exasperated peasantry came to the assistance of the Duke of Guise in harassing the retreat of the Germans and massacring all whom they took prisoners.

Henry III. Defied by Duke Henry of Guise.

King Henry III. had forbidden the leaders of the Catholic League to enter Paris. But Duke Henry of Guise came in spite of the king's orders, and was received with shouts of welcome by the Parisian populace, whose idol he had ever been. The king, pale with rage and terror, asked the duke why he had disobeyed his express orders; and the duke replied that he had come to defend himself against the accusations of his enemies.

"Day of the Barricades."

Paris was now divided into two hostile camps, and the Hotel de Guise was guarded by the mob as constantly as the Louvre was by the king's troops. The strength of Duke Henry of Guise was so evident that King Henry III. ordered several thousand of his Swiss mercenaries to enter the city. This occasioned a general popular outbreak in Paris, known as the *Day of the Barricades,* which was incited by the Catholic League. The king fled in terror to Chartres; and the Duke of Guise assumed the powers of dictator, overawed the Parliament of Paris, filled all civil and military offices with his own partisans, and seized and fortified the towns in the vicinity of Paris to prevent surprise. The triumphant Guise party established a revolutionary government in Paris under a *Council of Sixteen,* which held the city for six years.

Duke Henry of Guise and the Council of Sixteen.

Edict of Union.

Duke Henry of Guise was not yet prepared to raise the standard of open rebellion, and commenced negotiating with King Henry III. After some hesitation, the king was forced to sign an *Edict of Union,* at Rouen, in July, 1588, granting all the demands of the Catholic

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League, one of which was a convocation of the States-General, which the Duke of Guise intended should legalize his usurpation of power and place the king under his control. The Duke of Guise became Lieutenant-General of the kingdom, and Henry III. was left as king only in name.

Assassination of the Guises by Order of Henry III.

Henry III. had been forced to accept the humiliating conditions of the Catholic League by the stern necessities of the moment; but he had fully made up his mind to rid himself of the Guises, and he accordingly resolved upon their assassination. He invited Duke Henry of Guise to a consultation in the royal bed-chamber in the Castle of Blois, December 23, 1588; and the duke was assassinated by the royal guards as he was passing through the ante-chamber. The king brutally kicked the corpse of his murdered rival; after which he descended the stairs to the apartment below, where his aged mother, Catharine de Medici, lay dying, and saluted her with the words: "Now, Madam, I am once more King of France, for I have put to death the King of Paris." Louis of Guise, the Cardinal of Lorraine, was arrested and privately murdered in prison on Christmas Day, 1588, two days after his brother's assassination. Catharine de Medici died universally execrated, January 5, 1589.

Action of the Sorbonne and the Parliament of Paris.

The news of the assassination of the Guises threw Paris into an uproar. The Sorbonne—the great ecclesiastical authority of France—declared the French people released from their allegiance to King Henry III. The Parliament of Paris attempted to quiet the tumult, whereupon its members were imprisoned in the Bastile, and were only released when they confirmed the decision of the Sorbonne and promised to be the subservient instruments of the Council of Sixteen. After being purged of its refractory members, the Parliament appointed the Duke of Mayenne, a brother of the murdered Guises, Lieutenant-General of the kingdom; and the Duke of Aumale, another brother, was made commander of Paris.

Henry III., the Catholic League and Pope Sixtus V.

Between the Huguenots in the South of France and the Catholic League in the North, the wretched King Henry III. had only six towns on the Loire. He was in a desperate situation; as the Catholic League announced its intention to drive him from the throne of France; while Pope Sixtus V. summoned him to appear at Rome to answer for the murder of Louis of Guise, Cardinal of Lorraine, a prince of the Church.

Alliance of Henry III. with Henry of Navarre.

Henry III. was dismayed by the power arrayed against him; and, as the Catholic League refused to come to terms with him, he was obliged to throw himself without reserve into the arms of the Huguenots and to seek the alliance of King Henry of Navarre. After a personal conference at Plessis-les-Tours, in April, 1589, the two King

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Henries joined their forces and laid siege to Paris with the intention to reducing the rebellious city to a heap of ruins.

Peril of the Catholic League and Paris.

This powerful combination of the Kings of France and Navarre was in a fair way to crush the Catholic League, and the leaders of the league clearly perceived the danger which menaced them. Paris was weakly garrisoned; and it was well known that upon the fall of the city, which was inevitable if the siege was vigorously prosecuted, King Henry III. would severely punish the citizens of the capital for their rebellion and for their many insults to him.

Catholic Plot against Henry III.

Terror increased the fanatical rage of the Parisians. Their priests and the leaders of the Catholic League, and the Duchess of Montpensier particularly, the sister of the murdered Guises, openly declared that the assassination of one or both of the King Henries was indispensable to save France and the Catholic religion. In this condition of sentiment an assassin was finally found in the person of Jacques Clement, an ignorant Dominican monk, who was made to believe that the murder of the King of France would commend the assassin to the favor of Heaven and insure him eternal and unalloyed happiness in the next life.

Assassination of Henry III. by Jacques Clement.

It was known that the combined armies of the two King Henries had ordered an assault to be made on Paris on August 2, 1589; and Clement was hurried forward to his bloody task and prepared for it by the administration of the sacrament. He entered the camp of King Henry III. on August 1, 1589, obtained an audience with the king and stabbed him in the stomach. The assassin was instantly killed by the royal guards. Henry III. lingered until the next morning. Conscious that his end was at hand, he summoned his ally, King Henry of Navarre, to his bedside, acknowledged him as his successor on the throne of France, and induced the French nobles present to swear allegiance to him. Henry III. died between two and three o'clock on the morning of August 2, 1589. He was the last of the House of Valois, which had occupied the throne of France for two hundred and sixty-one years (A. D. 1328–1589), comprising the reigns of thirteen kings.

End of the Valois Dynasty.

Henry IV., First of the Bourbons, A. D. 1589–1610.

Thus the House of Bourbon ascended the throne of France in the person of King Henry of Navarre, who then became King Henry IV. of France, uniting permanently the crowns of France and Navarre. Thenceforth the Bourbon dynasty wore the crown of France for a little over two centuries, until the great French Revolution.

Opposition of the Catholic Nobles.

Although Henry IV. was the legitimate heir to the French crown, he had considerable difficulty in obtaining the recognition of his claims by the leaders of the royal forces engaged in the siege of Paris. The Catholic nobles manifested a disinclination to acknowledge a heretic as King of France, notwithstanding the oath they had taken in the pres-

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ence of the dying King Henry III. They plainly told Henry IV. that he must become a Catholic in order to become King of France.

Concessions of Henry IV. to the Catholics.

Henry IV. at first remonstrated with dignity against such treatment; but he finally consented to submit to the instruction of a national council, and to give all essential guarantees for the protection of the Roman Catholic religion in France. The Catholic nobles agreed to recognize his title to the French crown on those conditions; and on August 4, 1589, Henry IV., as King of France and Navarre, signed a solemn declaration by which he bound himself to maintain the Catholic faith and the property and rights of the Catholic Church in France, to summon a lawful national council within six months and abide by its decisions, and to give the Catholics possession of all the fortresses and towns of France except those granted to the Huguenots by the last treaty.

Catholic and Huguenot Opposition.

The Duke d'Epernon arrogantly refused to recognize Henry IV. even on these terms, and withdrew his force of seven thousand men to the province of Saintonge. The Huguenots of the provinces of Poitou and Gascony, under the leadership of La Tremouille, Duke of Thouars, likewise withdrew from the army of Henry IV., because they considered the king's promise to the Catholics a betrayal of their cause.

Eight Rival Claimants.

Eight claimants appeared for the crown of France, the most powerful of whom was King Philip II. of Spain, whose second wife was the daughter of Henry II., and therefore the sister of Francis II., Charles IX. and Henry III. Henry IV. was poorer than any of his rivals, and did not have either money or troops enough to meet them on equal terms. His cause appeared hopeless. He was a heretic, had been the favorite leader of the French Protestants, and had been the ally of the king who had caused the assassination of Duke Henry of Guise.

The Duke of Mayenne and the Cardinal de Bourbon.

The Duke of Mayenne was a weaker and less daring man than his brother, Henry of Guise, and did not venture to lay claim to the French crown as yet, but proclaimed the Cardinal de Bourbon, who was a prisoner at Tours, King of France with the title of Charles X., and assumed for himself the title of "Lieutenant-General of the State and Crown of France."

Henry IV. and D'Aubigne.

King Henry IV. was seriously discouraged by the obstacles in his way, and was prevented from retiring into the South of France only by the persuasions of his faithful friend, D'Aubigné, the famous historian of the Reformation. By thus remaining in the North of France, Henry IV. saved his French crown.

Henry IV. in Normandy.

As Henry IV. found his army very much weakened, he raised the siege of Paris, August 8, 1589, and marched into the duchy of Normandy. The governor of Dieppe at once submitted to him and placed that town in the king's possession, thus giving him an important sea-port, whence

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he might have communication with Queen Elizabeth of England, who had promised him assistance.

Caen next espoused the cause of Henry IV.; and in September, 1589, he defeated a superior force under the Duke of Mayenne in several engagements at Arques. He soon felt the good effect of these early successes. His brilliant management and his good fortune inspired him with confidence, and in the course of a few months his forces had increased to twenty thousand men.

Battle of Arques.

Results.

During the winter of 1589–'90 Henry IV. was recognized as King of France in the greater part of the provinces of Normandy, Brittany, Touraine, Poitou, Saintonge and Gascony; and he also had a strong following in the provinces of Dauphiny, Provence and Languedoc. All the Protestant sovereigns of Europe had recognized his title to the throne of France, and Pope Sixtus V. had expressed himself favorable to his claims.

General Recognition of Henry IV.

Henry IV. finally broke the power of the Catholic League by his brilliant victory over the Duke of Mayenne in the battle of Ivry, January 11, 1590. The army of the Duke of Mayenne was twice as large as that of the king. When the battle began Henry IV. addressed his troops thus: "My friends, yonder is the enemy, here is your king; and God is on our side. If you lose your standards, rally round my white plume; you will always find it in the path of honor and victory."

Battle of Ivry.

"Now glory to the Lord of Hosts, from whom all glories are!
And glory to our sovereign liege, King Henry of Navarre.
Now let there be the merry sound of music and the dance,
Through thy corn-fields green and sunny vines, O pleasant land of France!
And thou, Rochelle, our own Rochelle, proud city of the waters,
Again let rapture light the eye of all thy mourning daughters.
As thou wert constant in our ills, be joyous in our joy,
For cold, and stiff, and still are they who would thy walls annoy;
Hurrah! hurrah! a single field hath turned the chance of war;
Hurrah! hurrah! for Ivry, and King Henry of Navarre!"

Henry IV. could have taken Paris had he been able to march on the city immediately after his glorious victory at Ivry, but his advance was delayed by the necessity of reducing several important posts on the way. He reached the vicinity of Paris in May, 1590, blockaded the city, and was in possession of all the suburbs by the end of July. He might have taken the city by storm, but he refused to sacrifice the lives of his subjects. Said he: "I am the true father of my people. I would rather never have Paris than possess it by the death and ruin of so many persons."

Siege of Paris by Henry IV.

When the fall of Paris appeared inevitable the beleaguered capital was relieved by a Spanish army of fourteen thousand infantry under

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Relief of Paris by a Spanish Army.

Alexander Farnese, Duke of Parma, the greatest general of the time, who advanced from the Netherlands, completely outgeneraled King Henry IV., reinforced the garrison of Paris and supplied it with provisions, and forced King Henry IV. to raise the siege.

Retreat of the Spanish Army.

Greatly mortified by his failure in the siege of Paris, Henry IV. retreated to Compiègne in September, 1591. In the spring of 1592 he sought to force Alexander Farnese of Parma to a decisive battle; but the Spanish commander skillfully evaded the French king, and retreated into the Netherlands without the loss of a man or a cannon.

Henry IV. Becomes a Roman Catholic.

All parties in France were by this time tired of this indecisive and exhausting civil and religious war. King Henry IV., who already had been twice a Catholic and twice a Protestant, and who probably had no very deep convictions in favor of either faith, now resolved to bring peace to his distracted kingdom by sacrificing his religious convictions. He caused himself to be publicly "instructed" in the Roman Catholic faith; and on July 25, 1593, he abjured Protestantism and received the mass from the Archbishop of Bourges in the presence of a vast assemblage in the great Cathedral of St. Denis.

Catholic Submission to Henry IV.

Henry IV. never made any pretensions to a religious life, and his change of belief was a matter of little consequence to him. In a political sense it was a state necessity and an act of the profoundest statesmanship; as it struck the death-blow to the Catholic League, and removed the last obstacle to the reconciliation of the two great religious and political parties which had so long distracted France with civil and religious strife.

His Coronation and His Entry into Paris.

As Rheims was in the possession of the Catholic League, Henry IV. was crowned at Chartres, in February, 1594. He was generally acknowledged throughout France; and he entered Paris on March 22, 1594, by bribing Brissac, the commandant of the garrison. The king lightly remarked: "So fair a city is well worth a mass!" The submission of the capital was followed by that of the provinces, and Henry IV. became undisputed King of France.

His Forgiveness and His Popularity.

Henry IV. signalized his triumph by his liberal treatment of his former Catholic foes. He was generous and warm-hearted by nature and was incapable of retaining any resentment; and his conduct toward his recent enemies showed that he had not only forgiven, but also forgotten, their offenses toward him. Naturally such a king became universally popular among his subjects, who served him with a devotion almost without a parallel in history. Henry IV. had proved himself a great soldier, and he was now to show himself a great statesman.

Expulsion of the Jesuits.

After being firmly established on the throne of France, Henry IV. resolved to bring his quarrel with Philip II. of Spain to a decisive issue, especially after an attempt upon his life by an emissary of Philip

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II. and the Jesuits. He caused the Parliament of Paris to issue a decree for the expulsion of the Jesuits from France within fifteen days; and he declared war against Philip II. of Spain, January 17, 1595. War with Philip II. of Spain.

In the latter part of 1595 Pope Clement VIII. formally acknowledged Henry IV. as King of France; and early in 1596 the Dukes of Mayenne and Epernon submitted to the king, thus putting an end to the Catholic League. End of the Catholic League.

The war with Philip II. of Spain obliged Henry IV. to put forth all his energies. In the North of France the Spaniards captured Calais, Ardres and Amiens; but Henry IV. recovered Amiens, September 25, 1597. By the Peace of Vervins, in May, 1598, Philip II. relinquished all his conquests in France except the citadel of Cambray. Spanish Success. Peace of Vervins.

By the *Edict of Nantes*, which he signed in April, 1598, Henry IV. guaranteed to the Huguenots complete religious freedom and toleration, and secured to them equal civil and political right with the Catholics. All civil and military offices were thrown open to the Huguenots, and special courts for their protection were instituted throughout the kingdom. They were also admitted to all colleges, schools and hospitals equally with the Catholics, and were permitted to publish religious books and found institutions of learning for their own exclusive patronage. They were granted the right to hold a general assembly once in three years, to deliberate upon matters pertaining to their welfare, and to petition the crown for a redress of grievances. The seventy-five towns which the Huguenots had obtained by the Peace of Bergerac, in 1577, were secured to them permanently by this famous edict. Among these towns were La Rochelle, Nismes, Montpellier and Grenoble. Edict of Nantes. Religious Toleration and Civil and Political Equality.

By the Edict of Nantes, Henry IV. reassured his Huguenot subjects, who had been alarmed by his compulsory desertion of their party in 1593. The Catholic clergy and the more zealous of the Catholic laity bitterly denounced this memorable edict; but nevertheless it was registered by the Parliament of Paris, February 25, 1599, thus ending the long period of civil and religious strife, which had drenched France with the blood of her own people for thirty-six years. Happy Result. End of the Civil and Religious Wars.

SECTION XV.—THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR (A. D. 1618–1648).

The Emperor Ferdinand I. (1556–1564) and his son and successor, Maximilian II. (1564–1576), respected the rights of the Protestants of Germany and observed the Peace of Religion; but Maximilian's son and successor, the incompetent and careless Rudolf II. (1576–1612)—who had been educated at the court of Philip II. of Spain, and who Persecution of Protestants in Austria, Hungary and Bohemia.

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was entirely under the influence of the Jesuits and given to the study of astrology—connived at religious persecution in Austria, Hungary and Bohemia. Complaints then arose of the infringement of the law and of the violation of the liberty of conscience as guaranteed by the religious treaties of Passau and Augsburg.

Bigotry and Misrule of Rudolf II.

The incompetent and negligent Rudolf II., whose Spanish education and bigoted faith had made him zealously devoted to the Roman Catholic Church, refused to make the concessions to the Protestants of the Empire that his mild and equitable predecessors had granted. Party spirit, strife and confusion followed throughout Germany as well as in the hereditary states of the Austrian House of Hapsburg.

The Elector of Cologne.

As we have seen, when the Archbishop-Elector Gebhard of Cologne became a Lutheran, that he might marry the beautiful Countess Agnes von Mansfeld, he was deprived of his dignity. The Lutheran states of the Empire considered this action an infringement of the "spiritual proviso."

Persecution of Lutherans in Austrian States.

Rudolf's cousin, the Archduke Ferdinand of Styria, Carinthia and Carniola, refused his Protestant subjects the religious liberties which they had hitherto enjoyed, and caused the Lutheran churches and schools to be torn down, the Bibles to be given to the flames, and all who refused to attend the mass to be mercilessly driven out of the country.

Donauworth under the Ban of the Empire.

The imperial city of Donauworth, which was mainly Protestant, was placed under the ban of the Empire for disturbing a Catholic procession, taken possession of by the impatient Duke Maximilian I. of Bavaria, and deprived of its Protestant worship. The complaints of the Protestant Estates were unheeded by the weak and negligent Emperor.

Protestant Union.

In order to secure their religious privileges against the encroachments of the Catholic power, many of the Protestant princes and free imperial cities of Germany formed the *Protestant Union* in 1608, at the instigation of the Elector-Palatine and of Prince Christian of Anhalt, who were encouraged by King Henry IV. of France. As the members of this Protestant Union were mainly of the German Reformed Church, the Elector of Saxony, who was a Lutheran, refused to join it and held entirely aloof from it.

Contest for the Cleve Succession.

The death of Duke William of Jülich, Cleves and Berg, in 1609, without heirs, precipitated the contest between the two religious parties in Germany. The Emperor Rudolf II. conferred the reversion of the vacant duchies upon Christian II. of Saxony, but placed them under the immediate control of his cousin, Leopold of Styria, Bishop of Passau. But the Elector of Brandenburg and the Count-Palatine of Neuburg, each of whom had married a sister of the deceased Duke William, took

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joint possession of the duchies, in which proceeding they were aided and encouraged by King Henry IV. of France and by the Dutch Republic, while Kings James I. of England and Christian IV. of Denmark also declared themselves allies of the Protestant Union.

Leopold of Styria.

The Emperor Rudolf II. sent his cousin, Leopold of Styria, Bishop of Passau, with a military force to expel the Elector of Brandenburg and the Count-Palatine of Neuburg from the duchies which they had seized. Thereupon the Protestant Union formed an open alliance with Henry IV. of France by the Treaty of Halle, in January, 1610, and defeated Leopold's army.

Treaty of Halle.

Catholic League.

To oppose the Protestant Union, the *Catholic League* was now formed by the Catholic princes of the Circles of Bavaria and Suabia, and by the Archbishop-Electors of Cologne, Mayence and Treves. Duke Maximilian I. of Bavaria was the head of this league and the commander of its forces. The foreign allies of the Catholic League were Philip III. of Spain and Pope Paul V.

Triumph of the Protestant Union.

The assassination of King Henry IV. of France, in May, 1610, was a severe blow to the Protestant Union, as that confederacy had derived its chief strength from the genius of that great monarch, and it now became timid and hesitating. But the regency of France maintained the Treaty of Halle; and the lieutenant of the Archduke Leopold of Styria, after holding out several months in the hope of profiting by the assassination of Henry IV., surrendered the city of Jülich, September 4, 1610; thus leaving the disputed duchies in the possession of the Elector of Brandenburg and the Count-Palatine of Neuburg, the former holding court at Cleves, and the latter at Düsseldorf.

Matthias Becomes Head of the House of Hapsburg.

The Emperor Rudolf II. had alienated most of his subjects by his gloomy bigotry. Bohemia was infected with discontent. Moravia was in open revolt. Hungary and Austria came under the government of his brother Matthias by a revolutionary act signed in April, 1606, by which the Emperor's three brothers, Matthias, Albert and Maximilian, and their cousins, Ferdinand and Leopold of Styria, declared Matthias to be the head of the Austrian House of Hapsburg.

Matthias, King of Hungary.

After two years of fruitless negotiations the brothers appealed to arms. Matthias marched a body of troops into Bohemia, and compelled Rudolf II. to sign a treaty near Prague acknowledging him as King of Hungary in full sovereignty and immediate possession. By the consent of the Bohemian Estates, Matthias was also entitled *King-Elect* of Bohemia.

Religious Toleration in Bohemia and Austria.

The Diets of both Hungary and Bohemia boldly asserted their religious rights; and Rudolf II. in Bohemia and Matthias in Austria were both obliged to sign charters of complete and universal toleration. The *Letter of Majesty*, which Rudolf II., as King of Bohemia,

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granted to the Bohemian nobles, knights and towns in 1609, conceded perfect religious freedom with the right to erect Protestant churches and schools on their own lands and on the lands of the crown.

Matthias, King of Bohemia.

But the Bohemians distrusted Rudolf II., held him a prisoner in the Castle of Prague in 1611, and appealed to Matthias for assistance. Matthias instantly responded to this call by entering Bohemia with an army and compelling his brother to surrender the Bohemian crown also, so that the only crown which Rudolf II. still possessed was that of the Germano-Roman Empire. The miserable existence and imbecile reign of Rudolf II. were ended by his death, early in 1612.

Death of Rudolf II.

Matthias, Emperor, A. D. 1612–1619.

MATTHIAS was then chosen Emperor by the Electors, and was crowned at Frankfort-on-the-Main with imposing ceremonies; but he soon showed himself as incapable of governing the German Empire as his brother Rudolf II. The Protestant Union was strengthened by the alliance of the Dutch Republic, while the Catholic League was paralyzed by dissensions in the imperial family and by the withdrawal of the three Archbishop-Electors.

Weak Rule of Matthias.

Instead of the Jesuits, who had ruled Rudolph II., Cardinal Klesel controlled the court of the Emperor Matthias, who courted neither party, but was distrusted by both. Matthias's government was very feeble; and, though he was obliged to respect the rights of his Protestant subjects, he always sought to favor the efforts of the Jesuits to bring Germany back to the Roman Catholic Church, and soon convinced the Protestants that they could not expect much consideration from him.

Ferdinand of Carinthia.

The imperial House of Hapsburg had fallen into such decay that the brothers of Matthias resigned all claim to the succession; and as the Emperor Matthias was old and childless he appointed his cousin, the Archduke Ferdinand of Carinthia, his successor in Austria, Hungary and Bohemia. Thenceforth Ferdinand was the real ruler of Germany, Matthias being Emperor only in name.

His Catholic Bigotry and Ambition.

Ferdinand had already given evidence of the qualities of energy and ability. He desired to succeed Matthias on the imperial throne; and, as he was already known to be an inveterate foe of Protestantism, and had forced Styria, which was almost entirely Lutheran when he became its duke, to accept Roman Catholicism, the Protestants of Germany anticipated his accession to the imperial throne with dread. He was ambitious to recover for the Empire the grandeur and glory which it had possessed in mediæval times under Henry the Fowler, Otho the Great and Frederick Barbarossa; and he was wholly unscrupulous as to the means by which he sought to accomplish his ends. As he intended to make himself absolute master of Germany, so he

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resolved that his own religion should be the religion of the German people.

Ferdinand, as King of Bohemia.

The Protestants of Bohemia were greatly alarmed for the security of their religious liberties when the Emperor Matthias caused his bigoted cousin, Ferdinand of Carinthia, to be invested with the crown of Bohemia. At length, in accordance with an imperial decree, a Protestant church which had been erected in the small town of Clostergrab was destroyed, and another which had been built in the territory of the Abbot of Braunau was closed. The Protestant Estates of Bohemia, regarding this as an infraction of the Letter of Majesty, held a meeting at Prague, and presented a remonstrance to the Emperor, who, in his reply, sharply reproved those who had made the complaint, and confirmed the decree prohibiting the building of Protestant churches on ecclesiastical territory. Enraged at this, the Protestant deputies armed themselves, and, with Count Thurn at their head, proceeded to the council-house of Prague with the design of attacking the imperial council, whom they blamed for issuing the harsh decree. After a short dispute, the two Catholic councilors, Martinitz and Slawata, and the private secretary, Fabricius, were seized and thrown out of the castle window, more than fifty-six feet, by the enraged Protestant deputies. Notwithstanding the height of their fall, and the shots that were fired after them, both councilors escaped with their lives. The Bohemians established a council of thirty noblemen to govern them, and raised an army, at the head of which they placed Count Thurn, and entered into an alliance with the Protestant party in Austria, Hungary and Germany.

Closing of Protestant Churches in Bohemia.

Bohemian Revolt.

Thirty Years' War Begun.

The Emperor Matthias was anxious to settle the religious dispute in Bohemia peacefully; but Ferdinand II., as King of Bohemia, refused to listen to any offer of peace, as he now had an opportunity to extirpate Protestantism in his kingdom, as well as to punish his rebellious subjects. Thus, in 1618, began the great *Thirty Years' War*—the most terrible struggle that had ever afflicted Germany.

Bohemian Victories over Ferdinand's Armies.

The Elector-Palatine sent the heroic Ernest von Mansfeld to the aid of the revolted Bohemians; and that general laid the foundation of his future military fame by the capture of Pilsen, one of the three towns which alone remained to Ferdinand. The two armies which Ferdinand had sent against his rebellious Bohemian subjects were both defeated by Count Thurn, and the one commanded by the Flemish general Bucquoi was pursued into Austria and all its plunder was recovered. The Austrians refused to arm in the Emperor's service, or even to allow his reinforcements to pass through their territories to aid Ferdinand in the subjugation and chastisement of his revolted Bohemian subjects.

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Death of Matthias.

In this emergency the Emperor Matthias died suddenly, May 20, 1619, and was succeeded in all his dominions by Ferdinand II., who

Bohemian Invasion of Austria.

thus became sovereign of Austria and Hungary, as well as of Bohemia. The victorious Bohemian army under Count Thurn quickly overran Moravia, marched into Austria and appeared before Vienna, where Ferdinand II. was holding his court.

Austrian Protestant Demands.

The oppressed Protestants of Austria welcomed Count Thurn as their ally and deliverer; and their ambassadors forced their way into the imperial palace, and demanded from Ferdinand II., with threats, religious toleration and equal civil and political rights with the Catholics. Ferdinand II. was in imminent peril, but he firmly refused every concession until the arrival of Dampierre's dragoons freed him from constraint. Had Count Thurn acted with promptness and decision

Siege of Vienna.

he might have taken Vienna and destroyed the supremacy of the imperial House of Hapsburg; but, having neglected his golden opportunity, he was obliged to raise the siege of Vienna and to retreat into

Count Thurn's Retreat.

Bohemia to protect Prague, which was threatened by the imperial army under Bucquoi, who in the meantime had vanquished Count Ernest von Mansfeld.

Emperor Ferdinand II., A. D. 1619–1637.

Ferdinand II. then proceeded to Frankfort-on-the-Main, where he was elected and crowned Emperor, June, 1619. On his way he visited Duke Maximilian I. of Bavaria, from whom he obtained a promise that the Catholic League should support the imperial cause with arms, while King Philip III. of Spain also promised him assistance. The new Emperor's intention was to exterminate Protestantism in Bohemia, and then to strike at it in other parts of the Empire. His election was therefore regarded with the most intense alarm by the entire Protestant party of Germany.

Frederick V. of the Palatinate Chosen King of Bohemia.

About the time of the election of Ferdinand II. as Emperor the Bohemian nation cast off its allegiance to him; and the Estates of Bohemia and Moravia elected the young Elector-Palatine, Frederick V., the head of the Protestant Union and the son-in-law of King James I. of England, as King of Bohemia. The Bohemian Estates chose him partly because they believed that his personal qualities adapted him to the position, and partly because they supposed that his father-in-law, the King of England and Scotland, would aid him to maintain his crown.

His Acceptance.

Well-disposed friends vainly warned Frederick V. against accepting the dangerous gift. His own ambition, and the persuasions of his former tutor, Prince Christian of Anhalt; of the Calvinistic court preacher Scultetus, and of his haughty wife Elizabeth, who declared that she would rather starve at the table of a king than feast at that of an Elector—all these influences combined induced him to dis-

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regard the admonitions of his wisest friends, and he was accordingly crowned King of Bohemia at Prague, November 4, 1619.

Preoccupation of His Allies.

Frederick's few friends were absorbed in their own affairs. His father-in-law, the King of England and Scotland, was weak and vacillating, and disinclined to war. Prince Maurice of Orange, the Stadtholder of the Dutch Republic, though the most inveterate foe of the House of Hapsburg, was occupied entirely with his home affairs. Bethlem Gabor, Voiwode of Transylvania, though at first the most active of the Protestant allies, soon concluded a separate truce with the Emperor Ferdinand II. A Bohemian and Transylvanian army of eighty thousand men again besieged Vienna in December, 1619, but was obliged to raise the siege and to retreat, after losing two thousand men from actual starvation.

Siege of Vienna.

Incompetency and Misconduct of Frederick V.

Frederick V., weak and incompetent, was utterly unfitted for so momentous a crisis; and by his thorough lack of energy and dignity proved himself his own worst enemy. He squandered his time in idle pomp and luxury, and offended the Lutherans and Hussites of Bohemia by his zeal for Calvinism and by allowing his favorite court chaplain to insult them in the rudest manner. He also alienated the Bohemian army by dismissing its able and tried leaders, Count Thurn and Count Ernest von Mansfeld, and by appointing his own favorites, Prince Christian of Anhalt and Count Hohenlohe, in their stead. Such was his lack of wisdom and prudence, when his desperate situation from the beginning required him to put forth every energy to meet the determined effort which it was certain that the Emperor Ferdinand II. would make to drive him out of Bohemia.

Philip III. of Spain and the Catholic League.

While the Protestant princes in and out of Germany thus held aloof from the cause of Frederick, King Philip III. of Spain, the Jesuits and the Catholic League of Germany were working actively in the interest of the Emperor Ferdinand II. By the mediation of France, a treaty of peace was concluded at Ulm between the Protestant Union and the Catholic League, giving all the advantage to the Catholic side in the war for Bohemia. Though peace was concluded between all the German states, both parties permitted the passage of troops across their territories into Bohemia; and, the "Archdukes" of the Netherlands being exempted from the peace, there was no obstacle to their Spanish forces invading the Palatinate.

Peace of Ulm.

Army of the Catholic League in Bohemia.

In August, 1620, the Emperor's powerful ally, Duke Maximilian I. of Bavaria, led the army of the Catholic League into Bohemia, where he was joined by Count Bucquoi, their combined armies then numbering thirty-two thousand men, while Frederick's force did not consist of more than twenty thousand. Maximilian's next in command was Count Tilly, the Netherlander, a ferocious character, whose place

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Its Great General, Tilly. among the Catholic generals of Germany in the Thirty Years' War was second only to that of Albert von Wallenstein, the great general of the Emperor Ferdinand II.

The Emperor's Allies. In the meantime the Spaniards under Spinola were devastating the Rhine lands. The Elector of Saxony occupied Lusatia for the Emperor, thus cutting off Frederick's hope of relief from that quarter; and King Sigismund III. of Poland sent eight thousand Cossacks as auxiliaries for the imperial army.

Battle of Weissenberg. Frederick even yet might have saved his Bohemian kingdom had he acted with firmness and good management; but he alienated his best general, Count Ernest von Mansfeld, by his ill-treatment; and on November 7, 1620, Frederick's army, under Prince Christian of Anhalt, was attacked and defeated by the army of the Catholic League under Count Tilly in the battle of Weissenberg, near Prague. In consequence of this defeat, Frederick and his queen were obliged to flee from Bohemia, whose people they had offended and therefore could not trust; and, as they could not return to their rightful sovereignty, the Palatinate, which was then in the possession of the Spaniards, they took refuge in Silesia, and afterward in Holland, pursued by the imperial sentence of outlawry which deprived Frederick of his hereditary dominions, the Palatinate.

Frederick's Flight from Bohemia.

Cruel Punishment of the Bohemians. Bohemia and Moravia soon submitted to the power of Austria, and the unfortunate Bohemians were cruelly punished for their rebellion. The Emperor Ferdinand II. cut the Letter of Majesty to pieces with his own hand, and revoked all acts of toleration, while the tombs of the Bohemian Reformers were destroyed and their bones burned. Twenty-seven of the Bohemian nobles were executed; the property of the others was confiscated and bestowed on the Jesuits and other Catholic orders; the Protestant clergymen were gradually banished from Bohemia; and finally it was decreed that no subject who would not conform to the Catholic creed would be tolerated, in consequence of which harsh measure thirty thousand Protestant families left their homes in Bohemia, and took up their abode in the Protestant states of Saxony, Hanover and Brandenburg.

Bohemian Exiles.

Secret Bohemian Protestants. Multitudes of Bohemians who remained in their native land held fast to the Protestant faith in secret; and when, after the lapse of a century and a half, religious freedom was again proclaimed in Bohemia the government was surprised by the numbers who declared themselves Protestants.

Ruin of Bohemia. The wanton cruelty of the Emperor Ferdinand II. entirely changed the character of Bohemia; and that country ceased to be the seat of learning and intelligence, while its commerce was destroyed by the murder and exile of its Protestant inhabitants.

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Protestantism Crushed in Austria.

The Emperor Ferdinand II. next extirpated Protestantism in Upper and Lower Austria in the same barbarous manner as he exterminated it in Bohemia. His cruelty caused the Peasant Revolt of 1626, which was suppressed with extreme difficulty by the united forces of Austria and Bavaria.

The Protestant Leaders in the Rhine Region.

Count Ernest von Mansfeld, Prince Christian of Anhalt and the Margrave George Frederick of Baden-Durlach took the field in the cause of the outlawed Frederick of the Palatinate, and of the Protestant religion. Mansfeld plundered Alsace and desolated the Catholic bishoprics and monasteries on the Main and the Rhine, and, in conjunction with George Frederick of Baden-Durlach, gained the battle of Wiesloch, or Mingolsheim, in April, 1622, over the Bavarian general, Tilly, who had been sent into the Palatinate of the Rhine for the purpose of subduing the chief of the Protestant Union; but George Frederick was soon afterward defeated by Tilly in the battle of Wimpfen, May 6, 1622; and on the 20th of June of the same year Christian of Anhalt was also defeated by Tilly near Höchst. Mansfeld and Christian then marched into the Netherlands to procure assistance from England; while Tilly took Mannheim, Heidelberg and Frankenthal by storm, and committed the most frigthful ravages.

Battles of Wiesloch, Wimpfen and Hochst.

Plunder of the Heidelberg Library.

The Heidelberg library, then one of the most valuable in the world for its rare collection of manuscript, was partly used as a substitute for straw to stable the horses of Tilly's cavalry; but a part was sent by Duke Maximilian I. of Bavaria to the Pope, and was known among the collections of the Vatican for two centuries as the *Palatine Library*.

Dissolution of the Protestant Union.

The Protestant Union was forced to disband its forces, and its organization was dissolved in 1622 amid universal contempt. It seemed to most observers that the Emperor Ferdinand II. had triumphed over all his foes and that he had established his power beyond dispute; but the Thirty Years' War had only really begun.

Maximilian I. of Bavaria and the Emperor Ferdinand II.

In 1623 the Imperial Diet at Ratisbon conferred the Palatinate and the title of Elector on Duke Maximilian I. of Bavaria, through the influence of his ally, the Emperor Ferdinand II. This proceeding, and the evident intention of Ferdinand II. to attempt the suppression of Protestantism throughout Germany, blasted the hopes for a speedy termination of the destructive civil and religious war.

Saxon Alliance with Christian IV. of Denmark.

England, Holland and Denmark now lent their assistance to the Protestant cause in Germany; and the Protestant towns of Lower Saxony took up arms in defense of their religion, and formed an alliance with King Christian IV. of Denmark, whom they invested with the chief command of their armies. Those valiant Protestant leaders, Ernest von Mansfeld, Christian of Anhalt and George Frederick of Baden-Durlach, again appeared in the field.

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Albert of Wallenstein, the New Imperial General.

Thus far the war against the German Protestants had been carried on almost entirely by the Catholic League; but, as the struggle had assumed greater proportions, the League demanded supplies of troops from the Emperor. Ferdinand himself, who was jealous of the power and influence of Maximilian of Bavaria, resolved to raise an army of his own. Albert von Wallenstein, a wealthy Bohemian nobleman, offered to support an army of fifty thousand men, at his own expense, for the Emperor, on condition of being allowed the unlimited command of them, and of indemnifying himself by the plunder of the conquered lands. After some hesitation, Ferdinand accepted the offer of the daring adventurer, made him governor of Friedland, elevated him to the dignity of an Elector of the German Empire, and afterward created him Duke of Friedland and a prince of the Empire.

His Education and Military Greatness.

Wallenstein was a Bohemian by birth, but a German by descent, and had been carefully educated at the University of Padua, in Northern Italy, then one of the most renowned seats of learning in Europe. There he imbibed a belief in astrology, which had great influence on his subsequent life. In consequence of his infamous bargain with the Emperor Ferdinand II., he was at the head of an army of as desperate troops as ever took the field. He soon proved himself a great general, and became one of the famous heroes of the Thirty Years' War, while also acquiring the reputation of being one of the most unscrupulous plunderers of history.

North Germany Subdued by Tilly and Wallenstein.

Northern Germany now became the chief theater of the war; and the army of the Catholic League under Tilly, and that of the Emperor under Wallenstein, soon broke the power of the Protestants in that quarter. The campaign of 1625 began with the advance of King Christian IV. of Denmark from the Elbe to the Weser; but that monarch was defeated by Tilly near Hanover, thus ending the campaign decidedly in favor of the imperialists.

Mansfeld Defeated at Dessau by Wallenstein.

In the spring of 1626 Wallenstein marched northward with his plundering horde, but fortunately for Germany a jealousy between Tilly and Wallenstein prevented them from acting in concert. Wallenstein pursued Mansfeld and defeated him at the bridge of Dessau; after which Mansfeld marched into Hungary, and died in Bosnia while attempting to make his way to the Netherlands. Christian of Anhalt died the same year. In the meantime Tilly took Münden, in Hanover, prevented King Christian IV. of Denmark from joining the Saxon dukes, and finally defeated him with great loss at the Castle of Lutter, near the Barenberg, August 27, 1626.

Christian IV. of Denmark Defeated at Lutter by Tilly.

Wallenstein's Ravages.

In the spring of 1627 Wallenstein again advanced northward, his plundering army being preceded and accompanied by bands of gypsies, who concealed themselves in the woods and pillaged farms and houses

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whenever they had the opportunity. King Christian IV. of Denmark was compelled to retreat into his own dominions. His ally, the Duke of Mecklenburg, was driven from his territories, which were immediately seized by Wallenstein. **Danish Retreat.**

Schleswig, Holstein and the peninsula of Jutland were conquered and frightfully ravaged by the Catholic armies of Germany under Tilly and Wallenstein; and the King of Denmark was obliged to seek refuge in his islands. The Protestant German states of Pomerania and Brandenburg were forced to receive imperial garrisons, and the whole North of Germany lay prostrate before the power of the Emperor and the Catholic League. Encouraged by success, Wallenstein was anxious to win over the Hanseatic towns to the imperial side, so that Austria might be as powerful by sea as by land; and he endeavored to effect this result partly by force and partly by bribery. **Tilly and Wallenstein Masters of North Germany.** **The Hanseatic Towns.**

In his desperation and despair, King Christian IV. of Denmark looked to King Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden for aid; but the Swedish monarch was still engaged in his long war with King Sigismund III. of Poland, and could therefore render no other assistance to the Danish king than to prevent the Polish sovereign from sending an army to aid the Emperor Ferdinand II. **Christian IV. of Denmark and Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden.**

Wallenstein had great respect for the military talents of the Swedish king, and sought to draw him into a treaty for the partition of the Danish dominions, by which Sweden would receive Norway and the province of Schonen, while Denmark and the control of the Baltic would pass to the Emperor Ferdinand II. or to Wallenstein himself. But Gustavus Adolphus rejected Wallenstein's overtures, and sent aid to the Danish monarch as soon as he was able to do so. **Wallenstein's Proposal to Gustavus Adolphus.**

The heroic inhabitants of the city of Stralsund, in Pomerania, refused to receive an imperial garrison. Wallenstein marched against the city, and swore that he would take it if it were bound to heaven with chains; but all his assaults were gallantly repulsed by the inhabitants; and after a siege of ten weeks, during which he lost twelve thousand men, Wallenstein was obliged to relinquish the siege and to retire. At the same time Tilly was weakened by the withdrawal of some of his troops to Italy; and he was successively driven from Jutland, Holstein and Schleswig by King Christian IV. of Denmark. **Wallenstein's Unsuccessful Siege of Stralsund.**

The recent reverses of Tilly and Wallenstein in the North induced the Emperor of Germany to conclude a treaty of peace with the King of Denmark. By the Peace of Lübeck, in May, 1629, Christian IV. recovered the territories which had been conquered from him; but he was required to abandon the cause of the German Protestants, and to take no part in German affairs except in his capacity of Duke of Holstein. **Peace of Lubeck.**

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The Question of Ecclesiastical Property.

Since the religious Peace of Passau, in 1552, a vast amount of ecclesiastical property had come into the possession of the German Protestants. This property consisted of two archbishoprics, two bishoprics and other ecclesiastical lands. The question relating to these ecclesiastical possessions was one of the most difficult raised by the Reformation. Much of this land had been bestowed centuries before under conditions of tribute and obedience to the Roman Catholic Church; but Protestant princes of Germany, as well as the heirs and descendants of donors, claimed their right to control the disposition of benefices.

Edict of Restitution.

The Emperor Ferdinand II. and the Catholic party, encouraged by their recent triumph, now resolved upon the suppression of the Protestant religion and the full reëstablishment of Roman Catholicism throughout Germany; and, instigated by the Archbishop-Electors and by the Society of the Jesuits, the Emperor issued an *Edict of Restitution*, in March, 1629, which required the Protestants to restore all ecclesiastical property which had been taken from the Catholics since the Peace of Passau. Two of the most important bishoprics thus held —those of Halberstadt and Magdeburg—were bestowed upon the Emperor's brother, the Archduke Leopold of Styria, who already held a plurality of sees. In many of the Protestant cities of Germany the churches were closed and private worship was forbidden.

Protestant Resistance.

As the execution of the Edict of Restitution would wrest many bishoprics and almost all the foundations and abbeys in the North of Germany from those who then held them, it filled the entire Protestant portion of the Empire with terror and alarm, and prolonged the destructive civil and religious war which had already afflicted Germany for little more than a decade. Many of the Protestant princes and cities of Germany violently resisted the execution of the harsh edict, and the Emperor found himself obliged to employ military force to carry out his designs, but his army was no longer commanded by Wallenstein.

Wallenstein Dismissed at the Demand of the Catholic League.

Wallenstein's barbarous conduct in spreading ruin and desolation wherever he appeared aroused the indignation of both Catholics and Protestants; and the whole body of the German princes in the Imperial Diet at Ratisbon, with Duke Maximilian I. of Bavaria at their head, demanded the removal of Wallenstein from the chief command of the imperial army. The Duke of Bavaria was enraged by Wallenstein's presumption and by his ascendency over the Emperor Ferdinand II., while the other princes of the Catholic League were also offended by his haughty assumption of sovereign state and dignity. Fearing to offend the princes of the Catholic League, the Emperor yielded to the unanimous voice of the princes and the people of Germany, re-

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moved Wallenstein and appointed Tilly to the chief command of his army. Wallenstein retired to his duchy of Friedland, while he lived in the enjoyment of immense wealth, until he should again be called upon to assume the chief command of the imperial army.

King Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden as a Deliverer.

The unfortunate Protestants of Germany were now compelled to yield before the superior power of Austria and Bavaria; but they soon found a deliverer in the valiant Gustavus Adolphus, King of Sweden, whom the intriguing and unprincipled French Prime Minister, Cardinal Richelieu, the enemy of the House of Hapsburg, had induced to assist the German Protestants in their war against their Emperor.

His Negotiations with Cardinal Richelieu, of France.

France, under Cardinal Richelieu, held the balance in European affairs; and that great statesman and diplomat gladly saw the imperial power weakened by religious dissensions in Germany, though his position as a cardinal and as the counselor of a Catholic king prevented him from waging open war in the Protestant interest; but he negotiated a truce between Sweden and Poland which left Gustavus Adolphus free to prosecute his designs in Germany, and he offered that king the subsidies and close alliance of France.

Alliance of France and Sweden.

Gustavus Adolphus at first rejected the offers of Cardinal Richelieu; but a few months afterward a treaty was signed at Beerwald, in Neumark, binding France and Sweden to mutual aid and coöperation for five years. The most prudent of the Swedish Council admitted the necessity of the war. Wallenstein's late movements toward the supreme control of the Baltic menaced Swedish commerce; while the support which the Emperor Ferdinand II. had given to King Sigismund III. of Poland in his claim to the Swedish crown, and the contemptuous and even violent expulsion of the Swedish envoys from the Congress of Lübeck, were flagrant insults to the Swedish king.

Menaces to Sweden.

Gustavus Adolphus in Germany.

Convinced of the justice of his cause, and animated by his zeal for the Protestant faith and by his desire to avenge private injuries, Gustavus Adolphus "set his house in order like a dying man." Leaving the government of Sweden in charge of a Council of Regency, and commending his daughter and heiress, Christina, then only four years of age, to the care and fidelity of the Estates of Sweden, he sailed from his kingdom, which he never again beheld, and landed on the island of Rugen, on the coast of Pomerania, June 24, 1630, with an army of fifteen thousand highly-disciplined and sober, God-fearing men, who assembled around their chaplains twice a day, and were not permitted by their pious king to devastate any of the territory through which they marched.

His Religious, Military Discipline.

German Imperial Military Weakness.

Gustavus Adolphus landed in Germany at an auspicious moment, when Wallenstein had just been dismissed from the imperial service, and when nearly all his officers had relinquished their commands in

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disgust. When Tilly superseded Wallenstein in the imperial command he found himself at the head of a weakened and discontented army.

Contempt of the Emperor Ferdinand II. Changed to Alarm.

The Emperor Ferdinand II. paid little attention to the Swedish invasion of his dominions; and the imperial party generally predicted that the "Snow-King," as they called Gustavus Adolphus, never would dare venture far from the Baltic shores. But the ridicule of the court at Vienna was soon changed to surprise and consternation when the Swedish king advanced steadily into the interior and captured the fortresses of Pomerania and Mecklenburg in quick succession, which gave him a strong foothold.

Victorious March of Gustavus Adolphus.

Vainly did the imperial generals lay waste the country through which the Swedes advanced, even burning towns and villages to prevent the Swedes from obtaining food and shelter therein. The Swedish army continued its advance; and its perfect order and discipline won the hearts of the inhabitants, who were surprised that the invading army respected their rights, so that they looked upon the Swedes as their rescuers and deliverers.

Jealousy of the Protestant German Princes.

Many of the Protestant princes of Germany, fearing the vengeance of their Emperor, and jealous of the foreign monarch who had espoused their cause, at first refused to coöperate with the King of Sweden, and at the Diet of Leipsic they resolved to observe neutrality. Gustavus Adolphus compelled the Duke of Pomerania to enter into an alliance with him; but the Electors of Saxony and Brandenburg refused permission to the Swedes to march through their territories, and Gustavus Adolphus was delayed so long by negotiations on this subject that he was obliged to leave the Protestant city of Magdeburg to its fate.

Jealousy of the Electors of Saxony and Brandenburg.

The Elector of Saxony claimed the leadership of the German Protestants by hereditary right—a post which he lacked the ability to maintain. The Elector of Brandenburg, though the Swedish king's brother-in-law, was actuated more by jealousy than by any enlightened regard for the interests of his subjects.

Siege, Reduction and Destruction of Magdeburg by Tilly.

Magdeburg, the ancient seat of an archbishopric, had become one of the first and firmest strongholds of the Reformation under princes of the Brandenburg-Hohenzollern dynasty. It had resisted the Edict of Restitution and the investiture of Leopold of Styria, the Emperor's brother, as its bishop; and in 1629 the imperial army bombarded its walls for seven months. Magdeburg fell into the possession of the imperial army under Tilly, May 16, 1631, after a siege of six weeks, during which many fierce assaults had been gallantly repulsed. The devoted city was dreadfully punished. The entire city, except the Cathedral and a few houses in its vicinity, was burned to the ground;

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and thirty thousand of its inhabitants were brutally massacred by barbarous Croats and equally cruel Walloons.

Tilly's Ravages in Saxony.

Both armies were largely reinforced; and Tilly marched into Saxony at the head of one hundred and fifty thousand men, ravaging and plundering with his accustomed ferocity. When the Elector of Saxony was informed that two hundred of his villages were in flames he found himself under the necessity to conclude an alliance with King Gustavus Adolphus, joining him with eighteen thousand troops.

Saxon-Swedish Alliance.

Battle of Breitenfeld.

The King of Sweden marched to meet Tilly; and a sanguinary battle was fought at the village of Breitenfield, near Leipsic, September 7, 1631, in which the united forces of the Swedes and the Saxons gained a most brilliant victory. This imperial defeat disclosed the long-hidden decline of the Austrian power. The rout of Tilly's army was so complete that scarcely two thousand troops could be rallied for the retreat to Halle, while all his artillery fell into the possession of the victorious army of the Swedes.

Tilly Defeated.

Triumphant March of Gustavus Adolphus to the Rhine.

The battle of Breitenfeld placed Germany at the mercy of the victorious Gustavus Adolphus, and opened to him the road to Vienna, which he might have captured, and thus ended the war by a bold stroke directly at the heart of his imperial foe; but he had higher views of his own than those of conquest, and believed that he could better secure the religious freedom of Germany by entering the territories of the Catholic League, in every state of which a small minority were still struggling for liberty of conscience. Leaving the invasion of Austria and Bohemia to the Elector of Saxony, Gustavus Adolphus marched through Franconia to the Rhine, taking all the important towns and fortresses with surprising rapidity, many of them welcoming him as a deliverer and opening their gates at his approach. The Spanish garrison of Mayence surrendered to him December 13, 1631, and became the Swedish headquarters.

French Alarm and Suspicions.

Thus at Christmas, A. D. 1631, the "Snow-King" occupied a firm position on the Rhine, attended by his queen, his Chancellor and a brilliant court of princes and ambassadors. But his unexpected approach to the French frontier had alarmed the suspicions of King Louis XIII. of France, while Cardinal Richelieu began to fear the decline of his own influence in the German Empire. The Archbishop-Elector of Treves was induced to decline the Swedish king's protection and to admit a French garrison into the impregnable fortress of Ehrenbreitstein, thus ceding to France a coveted foothold on the Rhine, which was not soon relinquished. Gustavus Adolphus gave the French no real ground for their suspicions, as he started on his return march to Franconia as soon as he had driven the Spaniards out of the Palatinate.

French Garrison in Ehrenbreitstein.

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March of Gustavus Adolphus to the Danube.

When he arrived at Nuremberg he was greeted with acclamations of joy as the protector of religious liberty in Germany. Thence he marched to the Danube, crossed that stream, captured the city of Donauworth, and pursued the imperial army under Tilly to the river Lech, which separated the Swedish king from Bavaria.

Battle of the Lech.

The Lech was a narrow stream, but deep, rapid, and then swollen by the melting of the winter snows. Tilly's army occupied a strongly-fortified camp on the Bavarian side. The Swedish council of war declared that his position was too strong to be attacked; but King Gustavus Adolphus had personally reconnoitered the entire region, and had his own plan of operations, which resulted in remarkable success. After placing his artillery at a bend of the river where the height of the bank gave him a great advantage over the imperial army, he ordered a terrific cannonade upon Tilly's camp. Under cover of the smoke and din of this assault upon the enemy's lines, he caused a bridge to be constructed, while the interference of the Bavarians was prevented by the dreadful precision with which the Swedish cannon swept the opposite bank of the river. Tilly was mortally wounded by a cannon-ball; and Duke Maximilian I. retired to Ingolstadt, abandoning the defense of his frontier.

Tilly Defeated and Wounded.

His Death and Character.

The wounded Tilly died a fortnight later at Ingolstadt, his mind being occupied with military affairs to the very moment of his death. The entire soul of this hero was filled with war. He was simple and moderate in his style of living, and despised wealth and possessions, as well as titles and dignities. He knew no more of sensual enjoyment than of high cultivation or nobility of mind.

Gustavus Adolphus Invades Bavaria.

After occupying Augsburg, and there restoring the Lutheran form of worship, Gustavus Adolphus marched into Bavaria, and entered Munich, its capital, which had been deserted by Duke Maximilian's court. The only punishment which the triumphant Swedish king inflicted upon the trembling Bavarians was a fine and the seizure of one hundred and forty concealed cannons.

Wallenstein Recalled.

The Emperor Ferdinand II. was now in a desperate situation, as he was threatened with the loss of all that he had gained during the first twelve years of the war. In his extremity the humiliated Emperor again had recourse to the services of Wallenstein, who had secretly aided the Saxons to conquer Bohemia for the purpose of forcing the ungrateful Emperor to recall him to the command of the imperial army. When the Emperor appealed to Wallenstein the latter feigned a haughty reluctance to resume a command of which he had been deprived unjustly, and only consented to accept the command upon conditions which were both insulting and dangerous to the Emperor. Wallenstein demanded that he should be invested with ab-

His Terms of Accepting Command.

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soute power; that no prince of the Austrian House of Hapsburg should be with the army; that the Emperor should not make any military appointments, and not give any orders to the army, under any circumstances; and that Wallenstein should have the disposal of all confiscated estates.

Wallenstein's Ambition and Designs.

Wallenstein had fully resolved upon his future course. His motives were ambition and revenge, and he accepted the imperial commission only that he might betray his ungrateful sovereign, whose ruin he intended to make the means of establishing his own power. He intended to drive the Swedes from Germany, after which he meant to make himself master of the Empire, and finally to seize the imperial crown.

His New Army and His Opportunity.

The magic of Wallenstein's name caused large numbers of troops to rally to his standard, and he was soon at the head of an army of forty thousand men, with which he drove the Saxons out of Bohemia. The Emperor Ferdinand II. vainly implored Wallenstein for a few regiments to relieve Bavaria and thus save Austria from invasion by the victorious Swedes. Wallenstein could not forego the opportunity of revenge upon his inveterate enemy, Duke Maximilian I. of Bavaria, who had been responsible for his previous dismissal from the command of the imperial army.

Blockade of Nuremberg.

Finally Wallenstein consented to a formal reconciliation with Duke Maximilian I. on condition of having the absolute command of the Bavarian forces, which he united with his own army; after which he marched against Gustavus Adolphus, who had strongly intrenched his army at Nuremberg. Wallenstein, at the head of sixty thousand imperialists, formed a fortified camp within a few miles of the Swedish lines. For two months the two armies were watching each other, during which both suffered dreadfully from hunger and pestilence. After failing to draw Wallenstein into battle on equal ground, Gustavus Adolphus stormed the imperial camp, but was repulsed with heavy loss.

Wallenstein and Gustavus Adolphus in Saxony.

Gustavus Adolphus soon retired into Bavaria, and Wallenstein gladly saw the Swedish army engaged in humbling the Bavarian duke, while the imperial general himself turned to pursue his designs against Saxony. About the same time a revolt of the Austrian peasants afforded the Swedish king an excellent opportunity to invade Austria and march upon Vienna, and thus make the Emperor tremble in his own capital; but, upon being informed that Wallenstein was pressing the Saxons very hard, he sacrificed his own interests to those of his ally, the Elector of Saxony, by a rapid march northward.

Battle of Lutzen.

After collecting reinforcements in Franconia, Gustavus Adolphus arrived at Lutzen on the evening of November 15, 1632, where Wallen-

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stein already held a strong position, ready to await the Swedish king's attack. The next morning the entire Swedish army, kneeling, joined in their king's religious devotions, after which they broke forth in singing Luther's celebrated hymn: "*Eine feste Burg ist unser Gott.*" The two greatest generals then in Europe now for the first time encountered each other on equal terms, and every soldier felt that the fate of the German Empire hung upon the issue.

Victory and Death of Gustavus Adolphus.

The impetuous valor of the Swedes put three imperial brigades to flight, but Wallenstein's word and example were sufficient to rally them and to lead them anew to the contest. A colonel of Swedish cavalry having been wounded, King Gustavus Adolphus took command in person, and charged the imperialists in advance of his whole army, during which he was mortally wounded. His troops were then led by Duke Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar, and were inspired by a fury of revenge. After nine hours' stubborn fighting, during which Pappenheim, the leader of the imperial cavalry, was also mortally wounded, Wallenstein retired from the field, leaving his artillery in the possession of the Swedes, and fled in dismay from Saxony into Bohemia with his shattered army.

Victory Dearly Bought.

Such was the memorable battle of Lutzen, in which the Swedes gained a most glorious victory, but which was dearly purchased with the death of the heroic and valiant Gustavus Adolphus, "the Lion of the North." The Swedes sent the body of their illustrious king, which was frightfully disfigured by the hoofs of horses, to his native land for interment.

General Grief.

The death of Gustavus Adolphus was received with the most intense grief throughout Protestant Christendom. The great champion of Protestantism had been stricken down. Never was a king more beloved by his subjects. No unworthy act sullied the brightness of his fame. A German poet has celebrated him as the "first and only *just* conqueror that the world has produced."

Congress of Heilbronn and Axel Oxenstiern.

In March, 1633, a congress of the Protestant states of Germany, and the ambassadors of France, England, Holland and Sweden, was held at Heilbronn to decide upon what action to take in regard to the future. This congress conferred upon Count Axel Oxenstiern, who was administering the government of Sweden as regent during the minority of the infant Queen Christina, the same dignity and powers that the valiant Gustavus Adolphus had held as protector of the Protestant interests of Germany in opposition to the Emperor Ferdinand II. and the Catholic League.

As the unfortunate Elector-Palatine, Frederick V., had died since the battle of Lutzen, the Congress of Heilbronn provided for his children by securing to them under the guardianship of their uncle,

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Louis Philip, the territories of the Palatinate which King Gustavus Adolphus had conquered from the imperialists. The bishoprics of Bamberg and Wurzburg were erected into the duchy of Franconia, and conferred, as a fief of the Swedish crown, upon Duke Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar. During that year's campaign Bernhard captured the important city of Ratisbon, thus obtaining command of the Danube.

Congress of Heilbronn and the Palatinate and Franconia.

After the death of Gustavus Adolphus the Protestant forces in Germany were under the command of the Swedish general Horn and Duke Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar. Wallenstein displayed scarcely any of his accustomed vigor during the campaign of 1633, and gave great dissatisfaction to the Emperor Ferdinand II., who had already begun to suspect the fidelity of his great general. It became more and more apparent with the progress of time that Wallenstein was seeking to make himself King of Bohemia; and his enemies, who constituted a powerful party at court and in the army, demanded his dismissal.

Wallenstein's Treason to the Emperor Ferdinand II.

Wallenstein was accused of a design to enter into an alliance with Sweden for the accomplishment of his designs upon the crown of Bohemia; and for this reason he liberated the captive Count Thurn, the hereditary enemy of the Austrian House of Hapsburg. The Emperor Ferdinand II., by the advice of the friends of Duke Maximilian I. of Bavaria and the Jesuits, who hated Wallenstein because of the freedom of his religious views, resolved upon the destruction of the great general.

Their Growing Hostility.

When Wallenstein was informed by spies concerning the decision of the imperial council he assembled his leading officers at Pilsen and induced them to sign a written promise to stand by him to the last drop of their blood. Thus relying upon the fidelity of his army, Wallenstein felt prepared for a rupture with the Emperor. As Ferdinand II. was afraid to proceed to open hostilities with his great general, he sought to accomplish his end by treachery, and kept up a friendly correspondence with Wallenstein to the last, even after orders had been secretly given releasing the officers and troops from their obedience to their general and requiring him to be brought to the Emperor dead or alive.

Wallenstein's Rupture with the Emperor Ferdinand II.

The Italian general Piccolomini, whom Wallenstein considered his best friend, acted under secret orders from the Emperor Ferdinand II. to incite the soldiery against the powerful general and to lay snares for his life. The Emperor then pronounced Wallenstein's deposition in Bohemia; whereupon the great general marched towards Eger with his most devoted troops, in order to be nearer a juncture with the Swedes.

The Emperor's Decisive Action.

Before Wallenstein could join the Swedes he was assassinated, February 25, 1634, in his own headquarters at Eger by a band of

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Assassination of Wallenstein.

assassins, with the Irishman Butler at their head, sent for that purpose by the Emperor Ferdinand II. Wallenstein's faithful adherents and confederates—Illo, Terska and Kinsky—were also assassinated. The assassins were rewarded with honors, dignities and wealth, and received the confiscated estate of the murdered general.

His Character.

Thus died Albert von Wallenstein, the terror of the German people and the idol of the German soldiery. He possessed an audacious and enterprising spirit, a commanding character and a boundless pride and ambition. When his tall form, clothed in a scarlet mantle and with a red feather in his hat, was seen pacing through his camp his soldiers were seized with a strange awe.

The Emperor's Ingratitude.

However treasonable may have been Wallenstein's designs, the Emperor Ferdinand II. was under the most sacred obligations of gratitude to the great general for twice preserving his crown when all seemed lost. The Emperor publicly showed his gratitude of the general whom he had thus violently and illegally put to death by ordering three thousand masses to be sung for the repose of the illustrious victim's soul.

Movements of the Swedes and the Spaniards.

King Ferdinand III. of Bohemia—the son of the Emperor Ferdinand II.—received the chief command of the imperial army, which took Donauworth and menaced Nördlingen in the summer of 1634. The Swedish general Horn had been sent with a detachment to guard the passes of the Tyrolese Alps, but was compelled to rejoin Duke Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar and to leave the way open for the advance of the Cardinal Infant Ferdinand of Spain with an army from Italy. This warlike prelate was regarded as the first prince of the Spanish Hapsburgs since Don John of Austria who had possessed any military talent.

First Battle of Nordlingen.

This Cardinal Infant Ferdinand of Spain joined King Ferdinand III. of Bohemia under the walls of Nördlingen, where a great battle was fought August 26 and 27, 1634, ending in the total defeat and rout of the Swedish and Saxon forces under General Horn and Duke Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar. Horn and three other generals were taken prisoners, along with six thousand of their troops. Twelve thousand of the vanquished army lay dead upon the sanguinary field; while eighty cannon, three hundred standards and four thousand wagons became the spoils of the victorious imperialists and their Spanish allies.

Alliance of France and Sweden.

The fair prospect for a general peace was blasted by the intervention of France, whose renowned Prime Minister, Cardinal Richelieu, although a prince of the Catholic Church, was resolved to humble the proud House of Hapsburg. He had for a long time watched the struggle; and he now decided to intervene actively, for which purpose he negotiated a treaty with the Swedish Chancellor, Count Axel

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Oxenstiern, by which he agreed to assist Sweden with French money and French troops, in return for Sweden's consenting to the annexation of Alsace to France. Lorraine had already been forcibly annexed to the same kingdom, and a "Parliament of Austrasia" was duly instituted at Metz. The conquered duke, Charles of Lorraine, abdicated in favor of his brother, the Cardinal Nicholas Francis; entered the German imperial service, and became a valiant and successful general.

French Annexation of Alsace and Lorraine.

During the same year (1634) France concluded a close alliance with Prince Frederick Henry of Orange, the Stadtholder of the Dutch Republic, for a simultaneous invasion of the Spanish Netherlands by the French from the south and by the Dutch from the north. The Spanish Netherlands were invited to constitute themselves an independent state, ceding a considerable extent of territory on each side to each of the two neighboring nations by whose assistance the liberation of those provinces from Spanish rule was to be effected. If the Spanish Netherlands rejected this offer of deliverance they were to be conquered and then divided between France and Holland.

Alliance of France and the Dutch Republic.

The Spaniards had already wrested Philipsburg, on the Rhine, from the French; and in March, 1635, they also seized Treves, destroyed its French garrison, and carried the Archbishop-Elector a prisoner to Antwerp. As the Cardinal Infant Ferdinand refused to surrender this spiritual prince upon the demand of Cardinal Richelieu, a French herald at Brussels declared war against Spain. The Archbishop-Elector was already under the ban of the German Empire for having admitted a French garrison into the impregnable fortress of Ehrenbreitstein; and he was soon taken to Vienna, where he was detained in captivity for ten years.

French and Spaniards on the Rhine.

Captivity of the Elector of Treves.

The Elector John George of Saxony had long been wavering, and after the battle of Nördlingen he decided to make peace with the Emperor Ferdinand II. Nearly all the German states ultimately acceded to the Peace of Prague, in May, 1635, though they united in censuring the base ingratitude of the Elector of Saxony, in the defense of whose dominions the heroic King Gustavus Adolphus had lost his life on the bloody field of Lutzen, but who now engaged by a special article of the Treaty of Prague to aid in driving the Swedes from Germany.

Peace of Prague.

By the Treaty of Prague the Emperor Ferdinand II. made many concessions concerning church property and freedom of worship, except in Bohemia, which kingdom was now declared to be hereditary in the Austrian House of Hapsburg. The Swedes rejected the treaty, and their own propositions were disregarded by the imperial court. Thus the Alliance of Heilbronn was formally dissolved by the action

Bohemia under the Hapsburgs.

The Swedes Deserted.

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of the German princes in renouncing the Swedish alliance by the Peace of Prague.

German and Spanish Invasion of the Netherlands and France.

Germany was thus pacified for the time, and the Italian general Piccolomini entered the Spanish Netherlands with twenty thousand imperial troops; while the imperial army of the Rhine drove the French from that river and also from the Neckar, the Moselle and the Saar. The French operations were no more successful in the Spanish Netherlands and the Duchy of Milan; and in 1636 the German imperial and Spanish armies invaded France on four sides, but accomplished very little. Bands of Croats and Hungarians ravaged the North of France and alarmed Paris, where loud complaints were now made against Cardinal Richelieu; but the great Prime Minister quickly raised an army which dislodged the imperial troops from Corbie and drove them from France.

French and Swedish Victories.

In Germany, Duke Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar was performing brilliant military achievements in the service of France in the Rhineland; while the Swedes under Banner defeated the faithless Elector John George of Saxony at Dömitz and still more decisively at Wittstock in 1636.

Emperor Ferdinand III., A. D. 1637–1657.

The Emperor Ferdinand II. died at Vienna in February, 1637, and was succeeded on the imperial throne by his son FERDINAND III. The new Emperor was naturally more tolerant than his father, and was less influenced by the Jesuits and the Spaniards. He had also personally witnessed the misery and desolation which the long war had brought upon Germany, and was sincerely desirous of peace; but the war went on vigorously.

His Defensive Attitude.

Ferdinand II. had commenced the war to exterminate Protestantism and to make the imperial power absolute in Germany. Ferdinand III. continued the struggle to save what he could of the Empire from conquest by the Swedes and the French. As he failed in his efforts for peace, he prosecuted the war with vigor; and the Swedish general Banner was forced to raise the siege of Leipsic and to retreat into Pomerania by a series of romantic adventures and escapes.

Swedish Retreat.

Defensive Warfare.

After the great heroes of the Thirty Years' War—Tilly, Wallenstein and Gustavus Adolphus—had passed away, the great conflict had entirely lost its religious character, and it was now a defensive struggle on the part of the German Empire against French and Swedish conquest.

Swedish Ravages under Banner.

The struggle lasted eleven years after the accession of Ferdinand III. The admirable discipline which Gustavus Adolphus had maintained among the Swedes had passed away with him, and the Swedish troops became noted for their excesses and their cruelties. Their commander, Banner, who was himself an unmitigated profligate, de-

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clared that it would be no wonder if the earth should open and swallow up his army for its crimes and cruelties.

German Ravages.

The German armies on both sides were without a commissariat, and usually without pay, subsisting at the expense of the miserable inhabitants of the districts which they visited. Each army systematically destroyed the produce of the soil for the purpose of starving its enemies. The recklessness with which the wretched inhabitants were plundered and their property destroyed brought starvation and all its horrors to thousands of innocent women and children.

Brilliant Career of Duke Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar.

During the last period of the Thirty Years' War—the period following the Peace of Prague—all the principal European states were more or less actively occupied. Duke Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar, in the service of France, captured several fortresses on the Upper Rhine, and won a great victory over the German imperial army at Rheinfeld, March 3, 1638. He also forced the strong fortress of Breisach to surrender, in December, 1638, after a siege of six months. He entertained the project of obtaining Alsace as an independent sovereignty. But Duke Bernhard died in the flower of life and in the zenith of his brilliant career, and all his conquests on the Upper Rhine were absorbed by France.

His Sudden Death.

French Victories in Italy and the Netherlands.

The Count Harcourt, the French commander in Italy, defeated the German imperial troops in Piedmont, overran that country, and captured Turin in September, 1640, after a spirited siege of over four months. In the Spanish Netherlands the French drove the Spaniards from Artois in 1640, after capturing Arras, its capital, and annexed that valuable province to France.

English and Dutch Aid to the Elector-Palatine.

The young Elector-Palatine was aided by his two nearest relatives, King Charles I. of England and Scotland, and the Prince of Orange, the Stadtholder of the Dutch Republic; but the Dutch army sent to his aid was defeated by the German imperial army under Hatzfeld; and his younger brother, Prince Rupert, afterward so unhappily famous in the Great Civil War in England, was taken prisoner and detained in captivity in Germany for some years.

Revolts against Spain.

In the meantime the Spaniards were occupied with formidable revolts in the provinces of Catalonia and Biscay; while Portugal also rebelled and reëstablished her independence under the Duke of Braganza, who became King John IV., A. D. 1640. The Spaniards were also unfortunate at sea. Their fleet was destroyed by the French in Guetaria in 1638; and in 1639 the most powerful Spanish naval armament that had been sent forth since the Invincible Armada had menaced England was also annihilated by the Dutch.

Spanish Naval Disasters.

In 1637 the Swedes more than retrieved their losses in Germany. In 1638 they defeated the German imperial army at Elsterburg, and

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Swedish Victories in Saxony, Bohemia and Bavaria.

the Saxons at Chemnitz. They followed up their victories by capturing and burning Pirna, and ravaging Bohemia with fire and sword, reducing more than a thousand castles, hamlets and villages in that country to ashes. The campaigns of 1639 and 1640 were sharply contested, and the results were evenly balanced between the two parties. In January, 1641, the Swedish army under Banner, by a quick and masterly march through the Upper Palatinate, suddenly appeared before Ratisbon, where the Imperial Diet was in session. The Emperor narrowly escaped being taken prisoner, but the city was saved from capture by a thaw, which prevented the Swedes from crossing the Danube.

Swedish Victories under Torstenson.

Banner died in May, 1641, and was succeeded in the command of the Swedish army in Germany by General Torstenson, the most talented of the lieutenants of Gustavus Adolphus. He transferred the seat of war to the Austrian dominions, which thus far had escaped the general devastation and ruin. He captured Glogau, Schweidnitz and Olmutz, and even excited alarm in Vienna. He besieged Leipsic, and defeated

Siege and Capture of Leipsic.

the Archduke Leopold, who was advancing with an army to the relief of that city, on the very site of the great and decisive victory of Gustavus Adolphus over Tilly in 1631. Leipsic capitulated three weeks afterward, and only escaped pillage by the payment of an immense contribution.

Siege of Freiberg.

The Swedish army continued its operations throughout the rigorous winter which followed, and attacked Freiberg, which the German imperial army was obliged to defend; but no sooner had Torstenson raised the siege of that town than, by a quick and unexpected move-

Relief of Olmutz.

ment, he marched through Bohemia and relieved Olmutz, which was closely pressed by the imperialists. He then established a fortified camp near Olmutz, commanding the whole of Moravia; and his detachments again extended their ravages to the walls of Vienna.

French Victory on the Rhine.

On the Lower Rhine the French in the meantime had won a victory at Kempen, which opened to them the entire Electorate of Cologne and the duchy of Jülich, A. D. 1642. In that year King Louis XIII., as an ally of the revolted Catalans, besieged and took Perpignan, the

French Conquest of Roussillon.

capital of the province of Roussillon, which was conquered and annexed to France, thus extending the French frontier on the south to the Pyrenees.

Death of Richelieu and Louis XIII.

Cardinal Richelieu's death, in December, 1642, was followed by that of King Louis XIII., in May, 1643; and the latter's widow, Anne of Austria, became regent for his four-year-old son and successor, Louis XIV.; while Cardinal Mazarin, who became her Prime Minister,

Mazarin.

continued Richelieu's war policy for the humiliation of the House of Hapsburg.

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Battle of Rocroi.

The Spanish forces from the Netherlands laid siege to the fortress of Rocroi; but were decisively defeated in the battle of Rocroi, May 19, 1643, by the French under the young Duke d'Enghien, afterward so famous as the "Great Condé." He followed up his victory by the siege and capture of Thionville, the key to Luxemburg and the strongest fortress in the line of the Moselle, excepting Metz.

French on the Rhine.

In 1644 the French under their able commanders, the Duke d'Enghien and Turenne, won the entire valley of the Rhine from Basle to Coblentz, though they were repulsed with great loss in an attack on Freiburg.

War between Sweden and Denmark.

In 1644 Sweden became involved in a war with Denmark, which was still under the rule of King Christian IV.—a war brought about by the intrigues of the Emperor Ferdinand III. and of the queen-dowager of Sweden, who had been excluded from the regency during the minority of her daughter, Queen Christina. Denmark's demand for a payment of toll by Swedish vessels sailing into the Baltic—an imposition from which they had been exempted by a special treaty—was made the pretext for hostilities between the two Scandinavian powers.

Swedish Victories in Denmark.

The Swedish army under Torstenson invaded Denmark and speedily overran the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein and the peninsula of Jutland. The Swedes also conquered the province of Schonen and the towns of Helsingborg and Landscrona. A German imperial force sent to the relief of the Danes was annihilated and dispersed by the Swedes, only two thousand of these imperial troops succeeding in effecting their retreat into Germany.

Swedish Invasion of Bohemia.

The Swedes under Torstenson then returned to Germany, invaded Bohemia and achieved one of the most brilliant and decisive victories of the war at Jankowitz in 1645. The young Queen Christina of Sweden, who had assumed the government of her kingdom on her eighteenth birthday, in 1644, desired peace and required her great Chancellor, Count Axel Oxenstiern, to enter into negotiations with King Christian IV. of Denmark; and in August, 1645, the Peace of Brömsebro ended the war between the two Scandinavian powers, Denmark relinquishing the seven southern provinces of Sweden and exempting Swedish vessels from all tolls in the Sound or in the Belts.

Peace of Bromsebro.

French Victories in Bavaria and Flanders.

In 1645 the French army under the Duke d'Enghien advanced toward the Danube, and gained a brilliant victory over the Bavarian general Von Mercy at Nördlingen, August 7, 1645, thus winning that town and Dinkelsbühl for the French. Turenne took many towns in Flanders, and also captured Treves, which was restored to its Archbishop-Elector, who for a long time had been in captivity among the Spaniards.

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French, Dutch and Swedish Victories.

In the Spanish Netherlands the French under the Duke d'Enghien captured Courtrai, Mardyk and Dunkirk in 1646; and great conquests by the allied French and Dutch armies were prevented only by the insanity of the Prince of Orange, the Stadtholder of the Dutch Republic. In Germany during the same year the French under Turenne and the Swedes under Torstenson advanced to the very gates of Munich.

French Defeat in Italy by the Spaniards.

The French under the Duke of Guise aided the rebels under the fisherman Masaniello in Naples, who rose in arms in 1647 to cast off the Spanish yoke and to establish an independent republic. King Philip IV. of Spain was so occupied by his operations to reduce Catalonia and Portugal to submission that he recalled his fleet from Naples; but in 1648 another Spanish naval armament restored his authority in Naples, and the Duke of Guise was taken prisoner at Capua and conveyed to Spain, where he remained in capitivity four years.

French Invasion of Spain and Flanders.

The Duke d'Enghien became Prince of Condé by the death of his father in 1647; and during the same year he was sent to assist the rebels of Catalonia against the Spaniards, but failed in the siege of Lerida, and returned to France in disgust. He was then sent to command the French army in Flanders. He took the town of Ypres in May, 1648, drove the German imperialists from the province of Picardy, and gained one of his most brilliant victories over the imperial army under the Archduke Leopold of Austria at Lens, in the province of Artois, August 20, 1648.

French and Swedish Invasion of Bavaria.

In the meantime Torstenson, afflicted with the gout, resigned the command of the Swedish forces in Germany, and was succeeded by Wrangel. In 1648 the allied French and Swedish armies in Germany, under Turenne and Wrangel, severely defeated the imperial army under the Italian general Montecuculi near Augsburg and overran Bavaria, perpetrating all the usual barbarities, but were prevented from marching against Vienna by a sudden rise of the river Inn.

Swedish Invasion of Bohemia.

In the same year the Swedish generalissimo, Charles Gustavus, afterward King Charles X. of Sweden, invaded Bohemia, attacked Prague and waged an indecisive warfare with the German imperial army under General Königsmark until news arrived of the conclusion of the Peace of Westphalia, when hostilities ceased. Thus the Thirty Years' War ended at Prague, where it had begun.

Peace Congresses at Munster and Osnabruck.

The peace which the German people for years demanded in despair was finally concluded. The preliminaries had been agreed upon at Hamburg in 1641; and the neighboring towns of Münster and Osnabrück, in Westphalia, were selected for the meeting of plenipotentiaries from the belligerent nations. After more than a year had been wasted concerning minute points of etiquette, the two congresses—

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one of Catholic powers at Münster, and the other of Protestant powers at Osnabrück—were formally opened in 1643.

General European Representation.

All the great European nations, except England, Poland and Russia, were represented in these two congresses; as were also the smaller states, such as the duchies of Savoy, Mantua, Tuscany and Catalonia, and the Electorates, principalities and bishoprics of Germany. England was absorbed in her Great Civil War, and it was well for English freedom that the sovereigns of Continental Europe were prevented from intervening in behalf of the "divine right of kings" in England.

Exhaustion of Germany and Spain.

All the European governments doubtless were sincerely desirous of peace. The resources of the Emperor Ferdinand III. were exhausted. A considerable portion of Germany was still in arms against him, and another portion had declared its neutrality in the struggle, while his hereditary states were impoverished by their extraordinary exertions. Spain had lost Portugal, Catalonia and numerous towns in the Netherlands, and was now obliged to make humiliating concessions to France. France and Sweden seemed resolved to enlarge their respective territories at the expense of the decaying and tottering Germano-Roman Empire.

Five Years of Negotiation.

The claims of the belligerent powers were so numerous and conflicting that the negotiations were protracted for more than five years, and at many points in the conferences peace seemed wholly unattainable. The plenipotentiaries felt their own importance increased by the continuance of the discussion, while the generals had an equal professional interest in the prolongation of the war. Disputes respecting the rights of precedence between the ambassadors of France and Spain, and the title of Excellency borne by the Venetian envoy and claimed by the representatives of the German Electors, consumed many months of precious time in the Congress of Münster; while the war between Sweden and Denmark in 1644 and 1645 caused a total suspension of the Congress of Osnabrück for the time.

Peace of Munster and Independence of the Dutch Republic.

But finally the rebellion of Masaniello in Naples obliged Spain to bring her negotiations with the Dutch Republic to a conclusion; and in January, 1648, the Eighty Years' War of Independence in the Netherlands was ended by the Peace of Münster, by which Spain formally acknowledged the Dutch Republic as an independent power among the nations of the earth. By this treaty the towns of Dutch Flanders were ceded to the new republic, as were also all the Dutch conquests in America, Africa and the East Indies. When this eighty years' struggle began Spain was by far the greatest power of Europe; but when the struggle ended she was thoroughly crippled and reduced in power and importance, partly in consequence of her own suicidal

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policy, and partly as a result of the heroic and persistent efforts of her former subjects in the Northern Netherlands.

Armistice. The war which France and Sweden waged against Spain and the German Empire continued ten months longer; but the triumphant course of the French and Swedish arms in Germany alarmed the Emperor Ferdinand III., so that he consented to an armistice while the conferences at Münster were pressed to a conclusion. Finally the Peace of Westphalia was signed at Münster, October 24, 1648, ending the famous Thirty Years' War by restoring peace between all the belligerent powers except between France and Spain.

Peace of Westphalia.

Concessions to the German Protestants. By the Peace of Westphalia the Emperor Ferdinand III. granted religious freedom in Germany, proclaimed a general amnesty, and acknowledged the sovereign rights of the German princes in peace and war. The Protestants were to retain all the church property which they had held in 1624, and were to be allowed equality of representation with the Catholics in the Imperial Chamber. But these concessions were confined to Germany. In Bohemia and the hereditary Austrian dominions the Emperor refused to tolerate Protestantism.

The Palatinates and the Dutch and Swiss Republics. The treaty assigned the Upper Palatinate to the Elector Maximilian I. of Bavaria; but the Palatinate of the Rhine was secured to Charles Louis, the son of the unfortunate Elector Frederick V., and he was invested with the title and office of an Elector, so that there were now eight Electors in the German Empire. The Dutch and Swiss Republics were recognized as independent states, the former by Spain and the latter by the German Empire.

Acquisitions of Sweden and Brandenburg. By this famous treaty Sweden obtained Western Pomerania, the island of Rugen, the cities of Stettin and Wismar, and the bishoprics of Bremen and Verden, which were now secularized into a duchy and a principality. This acquisition of territory in Germany made the Swedish sovereign a prince of the Empire, with three votes in the German Imperial Diet. The Elector of Brandenburg received Eastern Pomerania, the archbishopric of Magdeburg and the bishoprics of Halberstadt, Minden and Kamin.

France's Acquisitions. The treaty confirmed France in the possession of all the lands belonging to the three Lorraine bishoprics of Metz, Toul and Verdun, and also ceded to that kingdom all that portion of Alsace which had belonged to Austria, the Sundgau, Breisach and the prefecture of ten German imperial cities, along with the fortress of Pignerol, in Piedmont.

New Era in European History. The Treaty of Westphalia began an important era in European history, as it was the first effort to reconstruct the European States-System by diplomacy when their relations had been seriously disturbed. It ended the period of religious and consequent civil revolution which

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had convulsed Europe for more than a century. It was fatal to the Germano-Roman Empire, which thenceforth existed only in name, the bonds hitherto uniting the Empire being loosened.

Weakness of the Germano-Roman Empire.

Instead of the compact realm which the Emperor Ferdinand II. had sought to build up, Germany was split up into three hundred petty sovereignties, each with its distinct coinage, its standing army, its custom-houses and a court in which ceremony supplied its lack of grandeur. In short, each of these numerous sovereignties had all the distinctive machinery of a separate state, and all were bound together in a nominal confederacy, without any national feeling.

Change in the Character of the German Imperial Diet.

The Emperor was deprived of his international authority. All the really imperial functions—such as making war or peace, constructing fortifications, raising armies, levying contributions for the support of those armies, etc.—were taken from him and conferred upon the Imperial Diet, which now ceased to be an occasional assembly of the princes of the Empire in person, and became a permanent organization consisting of their envoys with those of the fifty-three free cities. The Diet was required to convene regularly at fixed times and at a stated place. With the nominal existence of the Holy Roman Empire of the German Nation there was a system of clumsy formalities which tended mainly to obstruct and embarrass European diplomacy.

Mutual Dissatisfaction.

Amid the general joy which hailed the conclusion of peace, neither party in Germany was satisfied with the Treaty of Westphalia. The Protestants felt that they had not received the rights to which they were entitled, and the Catholics denounced the treaty because it conceded too much to the Protestants.

Denunciation of the Treaty by Pope Innocent X.

Pope Innocent X. denounced the Treaty of Westphalia as "null, invalid, iniquitous, and void of all power and effect." The remarkable change in human thought marked and declared by this treaty concerned His Holiness more nearly than any other European sovereign, except the Emperor. By conferring full civil rights upon persons who were enemies and aliens to the Roman Catholic Church, this celebrated treaty abrogated the entire theory by which the Empire and the Papacy had existed together for eight and a half centuries. But this theory had been slowly vanishing, so that the treaty only announced a change already accomplished. The Emperor Ferdinand III. forbade the publication of the papal bull in his dominions; and the Catholic powers, in their joy at the return of peace after the mighty struggle of a generation, utterly disregarded the thunders of the Vatican.

Germany's Loss and Exhaustion.

During the Thirty Years' War two-thirds of the German population had perished by the sword, famine, pestilence and other causes. The resources of Germany were exhausted, and her territory at the close

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of the war appeared almost like a desert waste. Cities, towns and villages had been laid in ashes; agriculture, manufactures and commerce had been neglected; and much of the former prosperity of Germany had passed away, poverty being general. Peace therefore came none too soon for the unfortunate land, as no other portion of Europe has ever suffered so terribly.

End of the Hanseatic League.

One of the results of the Thirty Years' War was the dissolution of the famous Hanseatic League in 1630, in consequence of the inability of the Hanseatic towns to defray the expenses in which the league involved them.

SECTION XVI.—SIXTEENTH CENTURY CIVILIZATION.

Result of the Reformation.

THE great Reformation resulted in the establishment of Protestantism among the Germanic nations of Europe—England, Scotland, Holland, Denmark, Norway, Sweden and Northern Germany; while the Roman Catholic faith remained fixed among the Latin nations—Italy, Spain, Portugal and France. Southern Germany, Austria and Poland also remained Roman Catholic. Hungary became largely Protestant. Russia adhered to the Greek Church. The Slavonic and Greek races in the Turkish dominions also held fast to the Greek Church, but groaned under the bigoted despotism of their Mohammedan conquerors.

Learning and Science.

The sixteenth century was remarkable for the mighty impulse which civilization received in all European countries. Schools were improved and universities multiplied. The works of antiquity were translated into the modern European languages. Germany and Italy were the chief seats of learning and civilization. The many universities in Germany established through the efforts of Philip Melanchthon, the great Reformer, cultivated and developed the study of the ancient classical literature. The great scholar, Erasmus, of Rotterdam, in Holland, was called to England, by Cardinal Wolsey, to teach Greek at Cambridge. The Reformation awakened a spirit of inquiry, and wonderful discoveries were made in the field of science, especially in astronomy; while bold navigators were bringing to the knowledge of Europe distant lands in America, Africa and Asia.

Material Progress.

The sixteenth century was a period of great material progress, and the wonderful commercial revival brought many changes—many new elements characteristic of modern civilization. By degrees communication and correspondence became more easy and rapid, by the construction of canals and military roads. Systems of commercial credit were established at Antwerp, Amsterdam, London and other European

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cities. Great fairs for trading purposes were held at Brunswick and Leipsic, in Germany, and at other cities. Banks, insurance companies and post-offices were founded in great numbers.

Industrial Arts.

The increased commercial activity stimulated progress in the industrial arts. Very great progress was made in these in all civilized countries. The processes of spinning and weaving were at first very simple, crude and tedious. The instruments used in spinning were the spindle and distaff, and then the spinning-wheel; while weaving was dependent on the loom and shuttle, and embroidery was executed by hand.

Art of Weaving.

With these simple means weaving had reached a high degree of perfection before the sixteenth century, particularly in Flanders, France and Italy, and in the cities of Brussels, Antwerp, Bruges, Valenciennes and Arras, in the Spanish Netherlands, and the cities of Genoa and Florence, in Italy. Tapestry-weaving displayed the highest perfection of artistic excellence, and immense sums were paid for the rich products of this skill. The silk velvets of Genoa were particularly esteemed. Stocking-knitting was introduced in the first part of the sixteenth century, and a Saxon matron invented lace-knitting in the same century, while the stocking-loom was also invented about the same time. Cotton-fabrics were made in Italy and Spain in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries.

Classes of French Society.

In France the nobles, except those connected with the royal court, were poor and helpless; as their fields were uncultivated and unproductive, and they themselves had scarcely the means of subsistence, their pride of rank forbidding them to improve their condition by labor. The bourgeoisie, or middle classes, embracing the merchants, trades-people, artisans, etc., were in many cases affluent, in some instances rivaling the nobility in the richness and elegance of their houses, in their dresses and in their equipages. The general condition of the French peasantry during this period was one of wretchedness and squalor.

English Manufactures.

The skilled artisans driven from France and the Netherlands to England by religious persecution laid the foundation of the manufacturing prosperity of that country. Agriculture was carried on more skillfully in England, though vast tracts of land were still devoted to the pasturage of sheep. The condition of the English peasantry was considerably improved. Their wattled huts gradually gave place to comfortable houses.

Nicholas Copernicus and His Astronomical Theory.

Nicholas Copernicus (1473–1543)—a distinguished Polish astronomer, a native of Thorn, then in Poland—demonstrated the falsity of the theory of the great astronomer of the second century of the Christian era, Ptolemy, of Alexandria, in Egypt, that the earth

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is the center of the solar system, around which the sun and the other planets revolve—a theory which had been accepted for fourteen centuries; but his great work, *De Orbium Celestium Revolutionibus*, "The Revolution of the Celestial Orbs"—in which he maintained that the sun is the center of the solar system, around which the planets revolve—was not published during his lifetime, through fear, and was only published after his death by a Roman cardinal, who dedicated the work to Pope Paul III., himself a mathematician.

Tycho Brahe.

Tycho Brahe (1546–1601)—a famous Danish astronomer—made astronomical observations from the observatory erected by King Frederick II. of Denmark at Uranienborg, on the island of Huen, for many years.

English Literature of the Elizabethan Age.

As we have seen, the Age of Queen Elizabeth was one of the most brilliant periods in English literature. Edmund Spenser (1553–1599)—poet-laureate under Queen Elizabeth—wrote the *Faerie Queen*, an allegorical poem, written in stanzas of nine lines each, called the Spenserian stanza. Though it is not now much read and lacks strong human interest, this poem exhibits exquisite sweetness of language, pure and tender feeling and fine imagination.

Edmund Spenser.

William Shakespeare.

The immortal English dramatist, William Shakespeare (1564–1616)—born and buried at Stratford-upon-Avon—composed thirty-seven dramas, in which he shows the various phases of human nature, and which place him among the first of poets. When a young man he went to London, where he became an actor, a manager of a theater and a playwright. The greatest of his dramas are *Macbeth*, *Hamlet*, *Othello*, *King Lear*, *Romeo and Juliet*, *Julius Cæsar*, *King John*, *Richard II.*, *Henry IV.*, *Richard III.*, *The Tempest*, *The Merchant of Venice*, *The Midsummer Night's Dream* and *The Merry Wives of Windsor*. The last two are the best known of his comedies; and in the latter the fat Falstaff, the companion of Henry V. and the type of a comic character, plays the principal part. Shakespeare gave its full perfection to dramatic poetry, whether of tragedy or comedy. His dramas are founded upon historical events or upon the ordinary affairs of human life. Shakespeare has been called the "Myriad-minded." Some writers may equal him in a particular point, but none ever possessed his wonderful power of ascertaining and showing the workings of the human heart.

Sir Philip Sidney.

Sir Philip Sidney (1554–1586)—the distinguished courtier and soldier who was mortally wounded on the field of Zutphen while fighting for the liberties of the Netherlands—did not write much for publication, but had a fine poetic temperament, and produced two works that had a powerful influence on the intellectual spirit of the age. These were *Arcadia* and *Defense of Poesie;* the former being a heroic romance

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WRITERS OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY

1. Tasso, 1544–1595
2. Cervantes, 1547–1616
3. Sidney, 1554–1586
4. Shakespeare, 1564–1616
5. Spenser, 1553–1599
6. Ariosto, 1474–1533
7. Rabelais, 1483–1553

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now read but little, and the latter being one of the earliest specimens of English criticism.

Sir Walter Raleigh.

Sir Walter Raleigh (1552–1618)—the renowned courtier, soldier and adventurer—was also a poet of some ability and a great friend of Spenser. Though a great favorite of Queen Elizabeth, he incurred the displeasure of her successor, in whose reign he was imprisoned for twelve years, during which he wrote his *History of the World.* He was beheaded in 1618, through the instrumentality of King James I., as we shall presently see.

French Literature.

Rabelais.

France produced two renowned writers during the sixteenth century. François Rabelais (1483–1553) was a priest and a famous satirist, who wrote the book called *The Life of Gargantua and Pantagruel,* which vividly illustrates the first half of the sixteenth century, but is immoral.

Montaigne.

Michel de Montaigne (1533–1592)—a noted skeptic—was a judge and Mayor of Bordeaux, but after the Massacre of St. Bartholomew he retired to the solitude of his own chateau, where he wrote the observations on life and manners which were afterward published as his *Essays.* His motto was *Que sais-je?* "What do I know?" His *Essays* were early translated into English, and have been widely read ever since.

Other French Authors.

France also produced the poets Clement Marot (1495–1544), Pierre Ronsard (1524–1585) and François Malherbe (1555–1628), and August de Thou (1553–1617), author of a history of his times.

Cervantes, the Spanish Novelist.

The sixteenth century was also the golden age of literature in Spain and Portugal. Cervantes (1547–1616)—the celebrated Spanish novelist—wrote many plays and tales; but his immortal work is his comical and satirical romance, *Don Quixote,* one of the finest pieces of humor ever written, and which so artfully represents a man who utterly mistakes the misty creations of a world of dreams for realities, and who fights for an object that exists only in his own imagination, that the term *quixotic* has become proverbial. Cervantes led an adventurous life, and was once captured by Algerine pirates and sold into slavery.

Camoens, the Portuguese Poet.

Camoens (1524–1579)—the only great Portuguese poet—described the chief actors and events of Portuguese history in his great epic poem, the *Lusiad,* in which he ennobled the epoch of the Portuguese discovery of India. During a passage home from the East Indies he lost his property by a shipwreck, saving only his great poem, which he held fast with his teeth as he swam. In Portugal he gradually fell into such abject poverty that he had bread collected by a Hindoo servant to escape death by starvation.

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Italian Literature.

In Italy the flourishing period of literature and art begun in the fifteenth century continued throughout the whole of the sixteenth. MACHIAVELLI (1469–1527)—a most politic statesman, a most acute thinker and a most pleasing historian, who flourished at Florence under the Medici—wrote *Discourses on Titus Livius*, *The Prince* and the *History of Florence*. These works still excite universal admiration. In the well-known book, *The Prince*, Machiavelli presents the spectacle of a ruler who, regardless of virtue, morality or religion, knows how to establish his own absolute power and make his own will the law. In this book freedom and national prosperity are as little regarded as truth and justice, only intellect being held in any estimation. Thus a faithless system of policy is called *Machiavellian*.

Machiavelli.

Italian Poets, Ariosto and Tasso.

In Ferrara the ducal court of the younger branch of the House of Este was ornamented by two of the greatest of Italian poets during the sixteenth century. ARIOSTO (1474–1533) wrote *Orlando Furioso*, a fascinating and sportive heroic poem. TASSO (1544–1595) wrote *Jerusalem Delivered*, an epic poem on the First Crusade, clothed in beautiful language.

Meistersingers in Germany.

In Germany the *Meistersong*, a kind of burgher poetry, was flourishing in the towns. HANS SACHS (1494–1576), the cobbler-poet of Nuremberg, was the most distinguished of the Meistersingers, and wrote six thousand pieces. SEBASTIAN BRANDT of Strassburg (1458–1521), a satirical poet, was the author of the *Ship of Fools*. JOHANN FISCHART of Mayence, who died in 1591, was also a great satirical poet.

Fine Arts.

Italy and Germany were the seats of the fine arts during the sixteenth century, and all the great European artists of that period were natives of those two countries. These will now be briefly mentioned.

Italian Artists.

LEONARDO DA VINCI (1452–1519)—a great Italian painter, sculptor and architect—flourished at Milan, his great painting being *The Last Supper*.

MICHAEL ANGELO (1474–1564)—the greatest Italian painter, sculptor and architect—flourished at Florence under the Medici, and superintended the building of St. Peter's Cathedral at Rome.

RAPHAEL (1483–1520)—an illustrious painter who flourished at Rome under Pope Leo X.—painted *Madonnas* and sacred pictures, and decorated the walls of the Vatican.

CORREGGIO (1494–1534) was also a distinguished Italian painter, noted for softness and tenderness; and his most famous painting was his *Penitent Magdalen*, eighteen inches square, for which a sum equal to thirty thousand dollars was paid.

TITIAN (1477–1576) was an eminent Venetian portrait and landscape painter, whose chief works are at Venice and Madrid.

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PAINTERS OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY

2. Raphael, 1483–1520
5. Holbein, 1498?–1543
1. Dürer, 1471–1528
4. Michael Angelo, 1474–1564
7. Da Vinci, 1452–1519
3. Correggio, 1494–1534
6. Veronese, 1530–1588

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PAUL VERONESE (1530–1588) was also a celebrated Italian painter of the sixteenth century, rich in imagination.

German Artists.

ALBERT DURER (1471–1528)—"the Father of German painting"—was a great painter, engraver and sculptor, whose best paintings are *Christian Martyrs in Persia* and *Adoration of the Holy Trinity.*

LUCAS KRANACH (1472–1553) was likewise a great German painter and engraver.

HANS HOLBEIN (1498–1543)—a great German portrait painter—spent most of his life in England under the patronage of King Henry VIII.

French Architects.

France produced PIERRE LESCOT (1510–1571), architect of the Louvre; PHILIBERT DELORME (1518–1577), architect of the Tuileries, and BERNARD DE PALISSY (1510–1590), first enameler of pottery.

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